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ABSTRACT

Endorsing a broader definition of scholarship and increased recognition of faculty and administrator scholarship in two-year colleges, this collection of seven articles examines the role of leadership in changing institutional attitudes and values; the connection between scholarship and teaching; and the professional obligations of community college educators. The articles include: (1) "Scholarship and the Culture of the Community College," by George B. Vaughan, which reviews aspects of community college culture that inhibit scholarship, and discusses ways to encourage cultural changes that support it; (2) "The Role of the Community College President in Promoting and Rewarding Faculty Scholarship," by Karen A. Bowyer, which presents the results of a nationwide survey of 117 community college presidents; (3) "Scholarship and the Academic Dean," by Betty Duvall, which offers recommendations to deans seeking to encourage faculty scholarship; (4) "Empowering Faculty as Teacher-Researchers," by Keith Kroll, which reviews a number of classroom research models and their implications; (5) "Scholarship, the Transformation of Knowledge, and Community College Teaching," by James L. Ratcliff, which argues for engagement with the literature of the disciplines to enrich teaching and stimulate a culture of inquiry; (6) "The Scholarly Activities of Community College Faculty: Findings of a National Survey," by James C. Palmer; and (7) "Additional Resources on Faculty Scholarship at Community Colleges," by Diane Hirshberg. An appendix reviews the sampling methodology used for the study described by Palmer. (PAA)

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1992

Fostering a Climate for Faculty Scholarship at Community Colleges

Edited by James C. Palmer
and George B. Vaughan

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Introduction

James C. Palmer and George B. Vaughan

As severe fiscal problems demand the attention of community college leaders in the 1990s, faculty scholarship outside of the classroom may seem unimportant and even frivolous. Yet the long overdue recognition of scholarship as a professional responsibility for all college educators and not simply university-based researchers remains of special significance to the community college. Calls for a broader definition of scholarship—made by Vaughan (1988), the AACJC Commission on the Future of Community Colleges (1988), and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (Boyer, 1990)—may lead to a wider recognition of the scholarly accomplishments of community college faculty, accomplishments that have often been overshadowed by the work of university faculty. The acceptance of scholarship as a broad arena for many activities (of which research is but one) also imposes an obligation on community college leaders: to encourage and recognize faculty and administrator scholarship, making it a valued part of the community college's institutional culture.

The essays in this monograph address three themes related to the challenge of scholarship at the community college. The first is *leadership*. Because community college educators have often viewed scholarship outside of classroom teaching as peripheral to the institutional mission and even harmful to it, leaders need to change attitudes and institutional values if scholarship is to take its place as an accepted part of community college life. Chapter One discusses how the institutional culture of the community college often discourages scholarship and how leaders can change the culture in ways that foster scholarly achievement. The two following essays by Bowyer and Duvall (Chapters Two and Three) also discuss leadership, examining, respectively, the role of the president and the dean of instruction in encouraging faculty who take on scholarly projects.

The connection between scholarship and teaching, often denied in the false but widely accepted teaching-versus-research dichotomy, is a second theme. Kroll in Chapter Four suggests a typology of activities that fall under the rubric of "classroom research," in which faculty conduct systematic inquiries into the processes and effects of their own teaching. By acting as classroom researchers, he maintains, faculty gain ownership of the education research agenda and take on a central role in college efforts to measure student outcomes and institutional effectiveness. In Chapter Five Ratcliff examines the close ties between teaching excellence and faculty scholarship in the disciplines. Noting that teaching is a matter of transforming knowledge in ways that make it understandable to students and not simply a matter of communicating facts, Ratcliff argues that discussions of teaching without reference to what is being taught trivialize the teaching profession and present an oversimplified view of what happens in the classroom.

The professional obligations of community college educators constitute a third theme, emphasized throughout by each of the authors. The degree to which scholarship becomes a part of the community college's institutional culture will depend largely on the extent to which administrators and faculty view themselves as professionals with obligations to the larger academic community and not simply as employees whose obligations end with the work day. In this regard there may be cause to be optimistic. Palmer's national survey of faculty, reported in Chapter Six, reveals that despite the lack of monetary rewards (or, in some cases, the lack of any recognition at all), many faculty members engage in projects that are of potential scholarly import. In forging a larger role for scholarship within the community college culture, leaders can build upon the scholarly drives and interests that already exist among many faculty members and administrators.

This monograph is a companion piece to a second series of essays on scholarship published in 1991 by Jossey-Bass Publishers, Inc., in its *New Directions for Community Colleges* series (Vaughan and Palmer, 1991). By raising the issue of scholarship and its place in the professional lives of faculty, we hope that community college educators—despite current fiscal woes—will continue to define and support scholarship in ways that promote the institution's teaching mission.

Support for the production of this monograph was provided by the U.S. Department of Education's Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE). We are grateful to FIPSE for its support as well as to the National Council for Instructional Administrators, which co-sponsored the national survey of faculty reported in Chapter Six. Diane Hirshberg of the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges provided a bibliography of additional readings, which are listed in Chapter Seven. Finally, we

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James C. Palmer
George Mason University

George B. Vaughan
University of Florida

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CHAPTER ONE

Scholarship and the Culture of the Community College

George B. Vaughan

Community colleges are dedicated to teaching and learning. Effective teaching requires that those who teach and administer in these institutions be committed to seeking truth and knowledge in an orderly, planned, and consistent manner—that they be committed to scholarship. In spite of their dedication to achieving the community college's teaching mission, teachers and administrators have devoted little conscious effort to the role that scholarship plays in achieving that mission. A major reason scholarship has never been a priority among many community college leaders is that it has never been an integral part of the community college's culture.

Those who would understand the role of scholarship as an institutional value at the community college must understand the meaning and nature of the community college's institutional culture. It is a truism that all institutions have a culture; also true is that all institutional cultures are constantly evolving. Moreover, it is my belief that the community college's culture reflects the attitudes of its leaders. Given these assumptions, the purposes of this essay are fourfold: to briefly discuss institutional culture; to delineate certain aspects of the community college's culture that have historically militated against scholarship becoming an integral part of that culture; to define scholarship in a way that is compatible with the community college mission; and to suggest ways in which educational leaders might incorporate scholarship into the community college culture.

Institutional Culture

Definitions of culture abound, reflecting its amorphous and elusive nature.[1] Peterson and others (1986), pointing out that the question of what

[1]The following discussion of institutional culture is taken in part from George B. Vaughan, "Leaders on a Tightrope: Maintaining the Ethical Balance," in G.B. Vaughan and Associates, *The Ethical Dimensions of Community College Leadership*, Jossey-Bass, forthcoming.

constitutes organizational culture remains unclear, note that "the definition of organizational culture is neither precise nor consensual" (p. 11). They believe that the attributes of culture—values, beliefs, and assumptions—distinguish the concept of *culture* from the concept of *climate*. Furthermore, they observe that climate centers on individual attitudes and perceptions and that these may change much more quickly than the values, beliefs, and assumptions that make up the institutional culture (Peterson and others, 1986).

One way of conceptualizing institutional culture is to view it within the context of the activities and behaviors of those who make up the college community. Kuh and Whitt (1988), while noting the elusive character of culture as a concept, offer the following definition: "values, practices, beliefs, and assumptions that shape the behavior of individuals and groups in a college or university and provide a frame of reference within which to interpret the meaning of events and actions." They further suggest that "institutional culture is both a process and a product. As a process, culture shapes, and is shaped by, the ongoing interactions of people on and off campus. As a product, culture reflects interactions among history, traditions, organizational structures, and the behavior of current students, faculty, and staff" (p. iv). The concept of culture as both process and product is a useful way of thinking about the culture of the community college, especially when viewed through the daily activities of teachers and administrators, including those activities that have a scholarly purpose.

Thus, the college culture grows out of past and present actions (process) and results in shared values, beliefs, and assumptions about an institution (product). Institutional culture changes slowly. For example, attitudes toward race, religion, and gender are often so deeply ingrained into some institutional cultures that open conflict results when new values clash with cultural values that had existed for years, and in the case of some colleges, centuries. While understanding an institution's culture is a rational process, appreciating it can be an emotional process, one that demands sensitivity to what has gone before and to what may happen in the future. Culture consists of those things that make an institution distinct: its history, its traditions, its values, its interaction with the larger environment, its ceremonies, its renewal process (including the recruitment and selection of personnel), and its evaluation process (including the assessment of ethical values and commitment to such things as scholarship). Open access, an important aspect of a community college's culture, is itself a value statement; for example, admitting students who have academic deficiencies and not dealing with those deficiencies is ethically wrong. Such things as myths, legends, stories of the college's founding and of early institutional leaders are part of an institution's culture; they contribute to a sense of history and community and inspire loyalty to the institution.

An institution's culture influences how it is perceived by members of the college community and by the community at large. The effective leader understands and is sensitive to an institution's culture, respecting and preserving the good things of the past but always taking the lead in shaping the present and planning for the future; the effective leader, and especially the effective president, understands when and where to work to change an institution's culture, when to let go of past values that are no longer acceptable in society or as part of the institutional mission. Indeed, the highly successful president becomes one with the culture; he or she acts as its interpreter and as the symbol of the institution, absorbing and being absorbed by the institutional culture and ultimately becoming an integral part of that culture, often after passing from the scene.

Scholarship and the Community College Culture

Some institutional cultures have evolved over many years and built extensive histories. For example, the histories of Harvard College and Oberlin College begin, respectively, in 1636 and 1833. In both cases, there is little doubt that the culture of these institutions has been shaped by the evolution of their missions. When this long-term evolution is contrasted with the relatively short history of the community college, one can understand why community college leaders have been somewhat insensitive to their institutions' cultures and to their roles in shaping those cultures. If, however, community college leaders are to integrate scholarship into the community college culture, leaders must begin to understand how their actions influence the college culture and its underlying values.

While it is dangerous and usually wrong to generalize about more than a thousand very different community colleges, each with its own unique culture, one can identify several aspects of community colleges that contribute to their shared identity: open-access admissions, comprehensive curricula, and community-based programs are some examples. There are also some common threads woven into the fabric of the community college's history and mission that have often caused many community college leaders to view scholarship as little more than an appendage to the teaching and learning process, or, as some would say, to the "real mission" of the community college. While there are exceptions, the overall result is at best an attitude of benign neglect toward scholarship, with college presidents turning a blind eye to the scholarly accomplishments of faculty, and at worst an outright rejection of it.

Several factors reinforce scholarship's low priority. None is sufficient in itself to preclude scholarship from the culture of the community college, but the collective effect has taken its toll.

History

The community college's history, especially its close ties to the public secondary schools, has been one that emphasizes teaching and rejects research. Even those aspects of the community college's history that are grounded in the traditions of four-year colleges and universities have done little to enhance scholarship; this is true in spite of the fact that most community college teachers and administrators hold advanced degrees from universities. One community college faculty member refers to the "in-between character of the community college" and maintains that community college faculty, like the community college itself, are viewed as hybrids whose work is only tangentially connected to higher education. She is pessimistic about the institutional culture, arguing that this "professional stereotyping" will likely remain (Sledge, 1987, p. 62). The community college, then, lacks a history of commitment to scholarship in part because of its early ties to public schools and in part because of its rejection of university-type research.

Teaching Versus Research

As suggested at the beginning of this discussion, community colleges have rejected research in favor of teaching. No knowledgeable person would argue that the community college should abandon or even lessen its commitment to teaching. But it could be suggested that creating a climate that fosters broad concepts of scholarship could actually improve the quality of teaching on campus. Nevertheless, the argument that a commitment to teaching limits a commitment to research has just enough validity to cause community college educators to reject research in favor of teaching, perhaps unintentionally and unknowingly de-emphasizing scholarship in the process.

Vocationalism

Community colleges rightly pride themselves on their comprehensive program offerings, which, in most cases, include vocational education. But the inclusion of vocational education as an important part of the community college mission, in spite of its many positive attributes, has not enhanced the community college commitment to scholarship. One reason vocationalism has inhibited scholarship on some campuses lies in the nature of the programs and courses falling under the rubric of vocational education; another reason is that much of the work done by vocational faculty members falls outside of traditional concepts of academic scholarship. Regardless of the reasons, and while many vocational educators are outstanding scholars, scholarship has not occupied a prominent place in the history of vocational education in the nation's community colleges.

Community Service

Community service programs are an integral part of the community college's mission, and these broad-based courses and programs are taught almost exclusively by part-time faculty members. While many of these part-timers have devoted their lives to the scholarly pursuit of a subject, some of the activities conducted under the community service umbrella require little understanding of or commitment to scholarship on the part of students or instructors. In addition, community service programs operate outside the regular instructional program on many campuses; thus, faculty members teaching community service courses are often excluded from faculty development programs (where they exist) that promote and encourage scholarship.

Part-time Faculty

On many community college campuses today, one not only fails to find a community of scholars, but also fails to find a community of faculty members of any type. Many two-year faculty members are part-time teachers: they drive in, teach their classes, and drive away. This statement is not meant to denigrate community colleges in any way and certainly does not intend to judge the value and use of part-time faculty. It is important to note, however, that many part-time faculty find it difficult to make a commitment to scholarship when their priorities lie elsewhere. (Indeed, 44 percent of the part-time faculty responding to the survey described in Chapter Six of this monograph reported that work outside of the college was a major impediment to scholarly activity; this contrasts to only 9 percent of the full-time faculty members.) The problems involved in building an institutional culture that values scholarship are compounded when many of the faculty have only a limited professional investment in the college community.

The Rewards System

Much of the failure to integrate scholarship into the community college culture results from the failure to consider participation in scholarly activities when rewarding faculty. For example, few community colleges include an evaluation of scholarly practices when determining the promotion or retention of faculty members. Certainly community college leaders should be cautious about falling or being pushed into a "publish-or-perish system." On the other hand, it seems appropriate for scholarly activities to be at least a part of any evaluation system for members of the academic community.

Expectations of the Job

Ask a community college faculty member or administrator why he or she does not engage in more scholarly activities, and the answer is likely

to be that there is not enough time. This is also born out in the survey results reported in Chapter Six of this monograph. The role of the community college professional is demanding, involving a teaching load of 15 or more credit hours per week and an endless number of committee assignments. Nevertheless, scholarly activities are a necessary part of professional life in any academic institution and should be engaged in regardless of the demands of the job.

Expectations that faculty be scholars have not been high in most community colleges; therefore, the culture has grown to reflect the high priority given to the demands of the job and ignore the demand for scholarship that one normally associates with membership in the academic profession.

Scholarship Defined

The limited extent to which faculty are expected to engage in scholarship is due largely to the failure of community college leaders to define scholarship in a way that is compatible with the community college's teaching mission and that does not mirror the research emphasis of the university. The failure to arrive at a more appropriate definition of scholarship is a formidable barrier to the integration of scholarship in the community college culture. Until an acceptable definition is adopted by college leaders, scholarship will never be a recognized part of professional life at the community college.

I define scholarship broadly as the systematic pursuit of a topic, as an objective, rational inquiry involving critical analysis. Scholarship involves precise observation, organization, and recording of information in the search for truth and order. It is the umbrella under which research falls, for research is but one form of scholarship. Scholarship results in a product that is shared with others and that is subject to the criticism of individuals qualified to judge the product, whether it be a book review, an annotated bibliography, a lecture, a review of existing research on a topic, or a speech that synthesizes the thinking on a topic. Scholarship requires one to have a solid foundation in one's professional field and to keep current with developments in that field.[2]

While the above definition is one with which most community college professionals can identify and one that is in concert with the community college's primary mission as a teaching institution, upon reflection I would broaden the definition even further. To the above definition I would add art exhibits by teacher-artists, original essays and poems, scholarly articles

[2]Vaughan has previously discussed this subject in a number of contexts. See references at the end of this chapter (Vaughan, 1988; 1989a; 1989b; 1989c).

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in journals and other publications that are not research-based, original texts designed for using computers in teaching (assuming the texts are more than yellowed lecture notes transferred to the computer and assuming that more than technical skills are required to place existing material on a computer), inventions and patents on inventions by technical faculty, and faculty members engaged in classroom research (researching their own teaching). A word of caution is in order: including articles published in journals as a legitimate scholarly outlet for community college professionals is not the same as the university's requirement that faculty members publish and is not a call for community colleges to adopt a "publish-or-perish" stance. Indeed, a journal article would be just another example of scholarship, as would be a scholarly speech on a topic, an art exhibit, or a well-constructed argument presented on the op-ed page of the Sunday supplement.

By defining scholarship in terms that are compatible with the community college's mission, its leaders can once and for all free themselves and future generations of community college professionals from the argument of teaching versus research. On the other hand, once community college leaders define scholarship in their own way, they can no longer argue that the university—not the community college—is the sole forum for scholarship. Once scholarship is defined and the definition is accepted by community college professionals, scholarly work will become a part of the institutional culture.

Incorporating Scholarship into the Culture

There are a number of actions community college leaders can take to encourage scholarship. A logical starting point is to modify those forces that militate against scholarship becoming an important part of the community college culture.

First, each institution should define scholarship in a way that is in concert with its mission. Without a definition that is compatible with the college mission and accepted by the college community, it is unlikely that scholarship will ever be viewed as anything other than a fuzzy concept that appears to have more relevance to the university than it does to the community college. Moreover, by going through the process of defining scholarship, members of the college community will understand more fully what it means to be a scholar at their institution and will, therefore, be more willing to commit themselves to scholarship.

Second, probably the most effective means of incorporating scholarship into the institutional culture is to reward scholarly activities. Here one can see that a common definition must be used, otherwise rewarding individuals for scholarly activities becomes subjective and hence ineffective.

If scholarship is part of the evaluation process when decisions regarding salary, promotion, and retention are made, it will quickly assume a position of importance throughout the institution. A word of caution is in order: teaching faculty members should not be the only members of the college community who are expected to engage in scholarship (as is the case at four-year institutions). If scholarship is to permeate the community college culture, administrators, including academic deans and presidents, must be committed to scholarship and must be judged, in part, by their scholarly contributions.

Third, and related to the above, presidents, deans, and division chairs must exhibit a commitment to scholarship through their own values and actions. While presidents and academic deans rate producing scholarly publications as a low priority for themselves and for those who report to them, many administrators, especially academic deans, are interested in and committed to scholarship in the broadest sense of the term. By agreeing upon a common definition of scholarship and by including scholarly activities as part of the evaluation process, presidents and deans have the means to translate beliefs into action. Moreover, they can apply the same standards of scholarship to themselves, thereby integrating themselves into the institutional culture while at the same time influencing that culture.

Fourth, members of the campus community must take every opportunity to celebrate scholarly accomplishments. Activities such as receptions and banquets honoring scholarly accomplishments are gaining popularity on many campuses. Some community colleges are publishing their own scholarly journals. An outstanding example is *Educational Forum: A Journal of Teaching, Learning, and Professional Development,* published by Massachusetts Bay Community College. The *Forum* is attractive, contains well-written articles by members of the college community, and, above all, is scholarly. Such journals are invaluable in communicating to the college community and to the public that the institution is committed to teaching and learning and that effective teaching and learning require that community college professionals be scholars.

Finally, every effort should be made to link scholarship and outstanding teaching. As Frederick Weaver, professor of economics and history and director of institutional research and planning at Hampshire College, observes: "There is no question teaching effectiveness should be the primary criterion for rewarding faculty in undergraduate institutions. [But] . . . undergraduate institutions must make explicit provision for faculty to engage in scholarship, because there are substantial and often overlooked *complementarities* between good teaching and faculty scholarship" (1989, p. 55). The link between good teaching and scholarship can be made through journals such as the one described above; through evaluating one's own

teaching in a systematic, objective way; and through communicating to students the vital link between the process and the product of learning. Once the link between scholarship and teaching is established, the definition of the community college culture will begin to change from the negative statement, "The community college is a teaching institution whose faculty do not do research," into the positive statement, "Community college faculty members are teachers and scholars." The result will offer a clearer understanding of the role the community college occupies in the academic world and may well enhance its standing among other institutions of higher education.

Community college professionals can make great strides in integrating scholarship into the community college culture if they are more sensitive to the role they as leaders play in shaping the culture, if they recognize and deal with those factors that militate against scholarship, if they define scholarship in a way that is in concert with the institutional mission, and if they make a conscientious effort to see that the integration takes place. To do any less is to ignore a weakness in the community college philosophy that, if not dealt with, may well turn out to be community colleges' Achilles' Heel.

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George B. Vaughan is professor of higher education at the University of Florida, Gainesville.

CHAPTER TWO

The Role of the Community College President in Promoting and Rewarding Faculty Scholarship

Karen A. Bowyer

A college president is responsible for establishing an institutional culture that encourages and rewards faculty scholarship. If the president does not value faculty involvement in scholarship, it can hardly thrive. The inner drive of some instructors will lead them to pursue their scholarly interests despite the president's indifference or discouragement. But the scholarly potential in others may go unrealized.

In order to determine what presidents do to promote and reward faculty scholarship, I conducted a brief survey of 117 community, technical, and junior college presidents in May 1991. The questionnaire defined faculty scholarship broadly as "faculty participation in and contribution to their teaching discipline(s) and/or pedagogy." The presidents were advised that examples of faculty scholarship may include such activities as preparing articles or papers for publication or presentation, preparing exhibits, giving a performance, developing computer software for an academic discipline, or helping area businesses adopt new technologies. Within this framework, the presidents were asked to respond to the following three questions:

- What have faculty on your campus done to demonstrate their involvement in scholarly activities?
- Do you encourage, recognize, and/or reward faculty for scholarly activities? If yes, please describe the type of reward or recognition that you use.
- Do you have a faculty evaluation system that includes review of faculty scholarship? If yes, please describe how this works.

Fifty-eight presidents responded to the questionnaire. These responses came from 26 states scattered across the nation, representing all six of the regional accrediting associations. There were one or two responses

per state, with the exception of Virginia, Texas, and Arizona, which had five responses each, and Florida, which had four. While the respondents are not necessarily a representative sample of presidents, they do provide insight into the types of scholarship faculty engage in and the ways scholarly accomplishments are recognized and rewarded.

Types of Faculty Scholarship

In answering the first question, many presidents listed an impressive array of scholarly activities. Clearly, these presidents were aware of the many ways their faculty remain involved as active scholars. Some of these activities involved traditional, disciplinary research. For example, the chief executive officer of the Forest Park Campus of St. Louis Community College, Missouri, reported that a sociology faculty member at the college used a sabbatical leave in the Far East to examine the cultural differences that inhibit business relationships between U.S. and Asian companies.

Other activities, however, fell within a broader scholarly framework. Teaching, for example, was most often cited as the focus of scholarly attention. Demonstrating their commitment to instructional improvement, community college faculty often work on the development of instructional materials or programs. Examples from the survey responses include the following:

- Faculty at Phoenix College, Arizona, have developed an interactive video project in biology and a computer-assisted instruction program integrating lessons in English and library skills.
- At Burlington County College, New Jersey, faculty have worked to establish relationships with high school instructors, thereby smoothing student transition from the secondary to the postsecondary levels.
- On the South Campus of the Community College of Allegheny County, Pennsylvania, faculty are currently developing a Writing Center in cooperation with Carnegie-Mellon University to foster and promote the teaching of writing.
- For the past two summers, 30 faculty from Tarrant County Junior College, Texas, have participated in three-week seminars with visiting scholars from Princeton, Temple, Auburn, and other universities. Funded by the National Endowment for the Humanities, the seminars have helped the faculty prepare for and teach in a new humanities-based honors program.
- A faculty member at Greenville Technical College, South Carolina, has prepared a paper, "Developing Critical Thinking Skills in Telecourse Instruction," for the 11th Annual International Conference on Critical Thinking and Educational Reform.

Another category of scholarship emerging in the survey was community service; in these activities, faculty use their subject expertise to inform the public on an issue, topic, or skill. The president of Clackamas Community College, Oregon, for example, cited the efforts of an economics instructor who produced a consumer protection book. Another example comes from Milwaukee Area Technical College, Wisconsin, where two of the auto-body faculty have developed and starred in a television series called "Classic Car Shop," which has appeared on more than 200 public television stations. These types of information-sharing activities demonstrate the potential value of faculty as a community resource.

Finally, artistic and creative endeavors were also mentioned. For example, the president of Yuba College, California, reported that the band instructor at her institution led an international orchestra in Europe in August 1991. At Bainbridge College, Georgia, an English teacher published a collection of local folk tales in 1987 and subsequently worked with a professor at a sister institution to write a children's play based on those folk tales. The president of Bainbridge College contributed an original musical score for the play, which has been viewed by more than 21,000 people, many of whom were schoolchildren.

Recognizing and Rewarding Scholarship

In response to the second question, 55 of the 58 presidents reported that they encourage, recognize, or reward faculty for scholarly activities. Several expressed a concern about not doing enough in this area, but when asked to describe the type of reward or recognition currently used, three categories emerged: awards, reimbursement, and institutional support.

At many colleges, scholarly accomplishments are part of the criteria used in award programs operated by college foundations, alumni associations, or other groups. Many of these programs take the form of "teacher-of-the-year" ceremonies. Examples include the following:

- An alumni association at East Central Community College, Mississippi, elects an outstanding academic instructor and an outstanding vocational-technical instructor each year. These outstanding faculty are awarded plaques at the college's annual homecoming ceremonies.
- The Northern Virginia Community College Educational Foundation annually recognizes three faculty for outstanding teaching and scholarship. Each is presented with an award of $1,000.
- The Bainbridge College (Georgia) Foundation Faculty Enrichment Award goes to faculty for scholarly activity such as postdoctoral work, research, or curriculum development and revision. The maximum amount of each award is $500.

The responding presidents noted that these award programs are often supplemented by other activities designed to recognize faculty accomplishments. These include news releases to local media, notices in college newsletters, personal letters from the president, certificates of completion, recognition at meetings of the faculty and staff, and social events such as banquets, teas, and receptions. Merit pay plans were also mentioned.

Besides awards, many colleges also reimburse faculty for travel and continuing education. In numerous cases, presidents responding to the survey reported that their colleges pay for classes taken by their faculty, reimburse faculty for participation in conferences and seminars, and make budgetary provisions for release time. One institution, Frank Phillips College, Texas, offers faculty a $7,500 no-interest loan to help cover expenses incurred in completing terminal degrees. Funds for reimbursement may come from a variety of sources. For example, presidents noted that monies for travel and release time came from Title III, the National Endowment for the Humanities, the National Science Foundation, and the colleges' foundations.

Nonmonetary institutional support can also play a role in encouraging faculty scholarship. For example, some presidents reported that they provide secretarial and computer support for faculty pursuing scholarly projects. This type of assistance is critical if faculty are to become involved in scholarly activities while teaching five or more courses per term. In some cases institutional support is built into the administrative structure of the college. At Massachusetts Bay Community College, for example, there is a full-time associate dean of teaching/learning and professional development who encourages, assists with, and recognizes scholarship by promoting faculty involvement in professional development activities on and off campus. The college's associate dean for planning and resource development also encourages faculty scholarship by involving instructors in grant writing.

Scholarship as an Evaluation Criterion

Though all respondents were able to cite examples of faculty scholarship, and though 55 of the 58 respondents indicated that the college used some formal mechanism to encourage and recognize scholarly accomplishments, only 35 of the presidents indicated that review of faculty scholarship was part of the college's faculty evaluation system. Some of these evaluations incorporate a point system in which scholarship or other forms of faculty development are assigned specific weights. Others mandate that faculty devote time to predetermined professional development activities. The following are examples of the types of faculty evaluation programs reported by the respondents:

- At Piedmont Community College, North Carolina, a point system has been designed to reward various scholarly activities. Between 10 and 25 percent of each faculty member's evaluation is based on his or her professional development. It is up to the faculty member to determine the exact proportion that will be used.
- All faculty at Jefferson State Community College, Alabama, are required to submit individual action plans concerning professional development. These plans are funded up to $1,000 each.
- In order to have their contract renewed, faculty at Mississippi Gulf Coast Community College are required to earn three semester hours of credit for professional update. Attendance at professional meetings may be used to satisfy this requirement.
- At Palomar College, California, faculty have a professional growth obligation of ten days per year. Faculty are encouraged to pursue scholarly activities to meet this requirement.
- Two of the ten criteria used at Bainbridge College, Georgia, to assess faculty are (a) research and (b) professional accomplishments, growth, and development. Other criteria include superior teaching, departmental service, and student advisement.
- For promotion of faculty at San Juan College, New Mexico, professional and personal development has a weighting of 25 percent.

How effective are these evaluation systems in encouraging scholarship? The questionnaire did not solicit answers to this question. And because most evaluation designs require evidence of "professional development," a broad term that may encompass a variety of activities, it is hard to determine the extent to which promotions and pay raises are based specifically on the production of scholarly products as defined by George Vaughan in Chapter One. Nonetheless, it appears that faculty evaluation systems at community colleges have the potential to recognize and give weight to scholarly achievement.

Conclusion

The informal survey provides additional evidence that scholarship, broadly defined to include activities besides original research, is already a part of the professional lives of many who work at community, technical, and junior colleges. College leaders still face the task, however, of making scholarship a central part of the institutional culture. High expectations for scholarly achievement need to be set. Faculty in community colleges should be expected to enrich and improve their teaching through scholarly activities. Review of faculty scholarship should be part of every faculty evaluation system. One president said that he uses a carrot-and-stick

approach with many more carrots than sticks. Faculty should be encouraged to produce a scholarly product but not threatened to the point of "publish or perish." Those who do produce should be rewarded and recognized.

Presidents need to create the environment in which scholarship will thrive. It is a tall order, but faculty scholarship is essential for maintaining the high quality teaching that has become the hallmark of our nation's community colleges.

Karen A. Bowyer is president of Dyersburg State Community College, Tennessee.

CHAPTER THREE

Scholarship and the Academic Dean

Betty Duvall

Community college educators have long prided themselves on the teaching orientation of their institutions. Their goal has been to create an institution that is different from the four-year college, where teaching receives less emphasis and faculty research is accorded top priority. Many community college leaders totally reject independent faculty research, as though rejection of scholarship were the only way to achieve the supreme goal of teaching excellence.

Recently, however, some educators have come to recognize the implicit interrelationship between teaching and scholarship, pointing out that scholarly activity is appropriate for faculty in all higher education institutions, including community colleges. This recognition stems in large part from a renewed debate on the meaning of scholarship and from the realization that scholarly contributions can take many forms besides university-based research and publication. The accountability movement has also played a role, forcing all institutions of higher education to augment teaching with inquiry into student outcomes, both at the classroom and institutional levels. Shorn of the excuse that scholarship is germane only to the university, and required to apply research methods to their own instructional efforts, community college educators have had to rethink their position on scholarship and find ways to make scholarship an integral part of the community college culture. The dean of instruction, who serves as a vital link between the administration and the faculty, can play an important role in this process.

Redefining Scholarship

Ernest Boyer (1987, 1990) has been a leading advocate of a broader view of scholarship. Boyer makes the case for a new view of scholarship by

redefining the work of the professoriate into four arenas: the scholarship of discovery, the scholarship of integration, the scholarship of application, and the scholarship of teaching. Two of these kinds of scholarship are familiar to higher education: the scholarship of discovery, involving traditional research that advances knowledge, and the scholarship of integration, involving the synthesis, analysis, and interpretation of research findings as a means of placing isolated facts into context. The third category, the scholarship of application, is also familiar to at least some parts of higher education. Here research knowledge is applied to practical problems that require solutions. This type of applied work is central to the mission of land-grant institutions.

The fourth category identified by Boyer—the scholarship of teaching—breaks new ground in the common perception of scholarship. Boyer argues that teachers do more than transmit knowledge; they also transform and extend knowledge, presenting it in new and useful ways. This final definition of scholarly activity is itself a transformation, an extension of the widely held view of scholarship as research. By extending scholarly activity to incorporate teaching, all members of the academic community may engage in scholarship, which can no longer be viewed as the sole purview of university professors. Boyer (1987) argues for this broader view of scholarship in his review of undergraduate education in the United States. There he comments that "scholarship is at the heart of what the teaching profession is all about . . . and to weaken faculty commitment for scholarship . . . is to undermine the undergraduate experience, regardless of the academic setting" (p. 131). Seen in this light, scholarly activity is more than simply appropriate to community colleges; it is an integral and necessary part of teaching.

Accountability

The accountability movement has added weight to arguments that scholarship is an important faculty role at community colleges. Demands for the assessment of student outcomes have emanated from political bodies, regional accrediting associations, and local boards. Colleges themselves, increasingly interested in quality assurance, have also spurred the current interest in institutional impact on student success. As assessment of institutional effectiveness rises in importance, so will the need for systematic scholarly inquiry into educational processes and outcomes.

Educators at the institutional level should be the primary players in this scholarship. Assessment may include but should not be limited to standardized tests. Locally developed measures, including both quantitative and qualitative indicators, are also important. Assessment programs should thus involve faculty and staff in self-examination, in clarifying goals, and

in increasing their sophistication in research methodologies. These efforts, rooted in the scholarship of discovery and application, should enable colleges to track the intellectual and personal growth of students over time, measure changes in student attitudes and values, and determine the "value-added" impact on students, that is, the knowledge and skills that students gain through the educational experience.

Though assessment is an institutional responsibility, it can and should be carried out at the classroom level and made an integral part of the scholarship of teaching. "Classroom research" as discussed by Cross (1990) provides a mechanism for this assessment. Working from the precept that the mission of the community college is teaching, she argues that by investigating teaching as it occurs, faculty members enhance both teaching and learning. At the same time teachers become principle researchers, active scholars who contribute to our understanding of the educational process. Through classroom research, teachers help the institution provide an immediate response to those seeking educational reform and accountability. Classroom research allows the teacher to play a key role in identifying problems and seeking out solutions. It makes the teacher the researcher and the discoverer, as well as the interpreter of data and the explorer of applied research.

Fostering a Supportive Institutional Culture

Despite the evidence that scholarship is a responsibility of faculty at all institutions of higher education and that good teaching is enhanced through scholarly activities, faculty scholarship has not generally been incorporated into the community college culture. Institutional leaders have yet to adopt scholarship as a key part of the community college mission. Though individual faculty members frequently engage in research and other scholarly work, and though these same leaders often take great pride in those faculty accomplishments, scholarship at the community college has been seen as a desirable but unnecessary add-on. Individual faculty will no doubt continue to pursue scholarly activities. Yet more could be done to encourage scholarly work and to reassure faculty that such work is appropriate at the community college.

The instructional dean can play the most influential role in creating a climate that supports and encourages faculty scholarship. Deans, while they are clearly administrators, are also faculty members, concerned with curriculum, teaching methods, and classroom management. Through their efforts, faculty and the institution as a whole can explore and revise their notions of teaching, scholarship, and the relationship between the two.

A first step is to recognize that community college faculty have typically involved themselves in activities commonly viewed as scholarly. Many

community college faculty publish; for example, some English faculty members publish creative writing, while others frequently write articles for professional journals. In addition, community college faculty may be actively involved in externally funded projects, some related to teaching or curriculum development, others related to the faculty member's teaching field. Many faculty members also make presentations at professional conferences, again focusing on teaching or on their academic disciplines. For the most part, these efforts are the result of the individual's interest and do not result from any systematic emphasis from the institution.

The dean should also realize that faculty from all fields make scholarly contributions. The baccalaureate transfer program often comes to mind when one discusses scholarship. However, technical and career programs, which constitute the other major component of the community college credit curriculum, are a very fertile area for scholarship. Vocational faculty have long practiced classroom research and assessment of added value. Instructors in vocational fields often develop competency-based curricula and verify student mastery of course material. In addition, vocational faculty have expanded their scholarship into the applied research arena. With the advent of advanced technology centers (ATCs), vocational faculty have become the research and development staff for small businesses, designing and testing manufacturing innovations prior to their actual implementation. At some advanced technology centers, actual production may follow. ATCs may also collect information and data on a given design idea and disseminate the results, thus serving the same role that special libraries do in large corporations. While vocational faculty themselves may not view their activities as scholarly, they could lead the way in classroom and applied research for all community college instructors.

The task of building on this base of faculty work to encourage scholarship is not the sole responsibility of faculty or the academic administration. Both can encourage scholarship, seeking ways to reward and recognize scholarly accomplishment. Such activities need not be big or expensive; in fact, smaller efforts may be the most effective. Certainly those that receive input from the faculty rank and file are more likely to be effective than any that are forced on faculty by administrators. The dean's role is not to mandate scholarship, but to encourage it. This may be accomplished through a variety of efforts, such as the following:

- Colleges can schedule regular seminars at which faculty members from all fields have the opportunity to discuss their scholarly activities. Besides recognizing scholarly accomplishments, these seminars may spark new ideas for research or other faculty products. Moreover, the seminars could be expanded to include faculty from adjoining

community colleges, thereby broadening the information exchange and expanding the scope of faculty recognition.

- The dean may be able to develop an innovative teachers' fund to provide small grants for research or other scholarly work. This fund could be informally administered, and faculty could apply for grants from the fund by writing proposals that would be judged on a competitive basis. Such a process might provide faculty with experience that would help them write proposals for larger, externally funded projects. After a period of time, the fund might be expanded through contributions from the college foundation or community groups.
- Deans should also encourage faculty to seek out collaborative ventures. Research partnerships with local industries (such as those undertaken at advanced technology centers) or with local universities can be fruitful avenues of scholarly work. In addition, partnerships between faculty and students can be as productive at the community college level (in both learning and in advancing knowledge) as they are at the university.
- Rewards for faculty scholarship will be important. In some cases, they may be part of the institutionalized reward system (advancement in academic rank or salary schedule), but peer recognition (such as a reception for published authors or a president's luncheon for faculty scholars) should also be used. Other rewards might take the form of equipment granted to faculty or departments pursuing research that enhances teaching.
- Release time awarded annually to an outstanding faculty-scholar will provide deserved recognition as well as relief from the vigorous teaching schedules faced by most community college instructors. Colleges can also develop teaching schedules that meet the needs of students while providing faculty with uninterrupted office or library time. For example, if an instructor in the fine arts can complete his or her teaching schedule on Monday through Thursday, this will leave three uninterrupted days—Friday, Saturday, and Sunday—of studio time.

The Dean as Scholar

A successful dean has the confidence of the faculty. This can come only as the result of mutual respect; that is, the dean must first respect and have confidence in the faculty. There is no better way to achieve this shared respect than through the encouragement of scholarly activities. Faculty in community colleges, like their counterparts in other areas of higher education, have strong ties to their subject disciplines. In addition, community college faculty feel a strong tie to the teaching-learning process. The instructor is both scientist and educator, nurse and educator, etc. Even

if individual community college faculty have not been involved in research, most feel a strong need to be, and many comment on the heavy teaching load and the demanding needs of a heterogeneous student population that syphon off time, energy, and creativity. Deans should recognize and encourage the potential scholar in every faculty member.

Deans will be more effective in this task by adhering to the principle of leadership by example and remaining active scholars themselves. This will require deans to teach, read, and remain current in their academic fields. Deans, like faculty, feel a commitment to scholarship and will derive substantial personal satisfaction through these scholarly endeavors. But active scholarship on the part of the dean will also benefit the college as a whole, fostering improved standards of academic excellence, the empowerment of strong faculty members, and the establishment of an institutional climate that will be noted not only by faculty, but by students and the community as well.

The academic dean, along with other instructional administrators, should be a model of scholarship while at the same time seeking ways to encourage, recognize, and reward scholarly activities. Deans alone cannot create the culture needed to support scholarship. Faculty themselves must recognize the need for and the benefits derived from scholarship. They must make scholarship a part of their professional responsibilities. But the dean can set an example and communicate the importance of scholarship to faculty colleagues. The benefits to faculty themselves in terms of professional renewal both as subject area specialists and as teachers will quickly convince others to join the new movement in community college education: the scholarship movement.

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Betty Duvall is executive dean of the Rock Creek Campus of Portland Community College, Oregon.

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CHAPTER FOUR

Empowering Faculty as Teacher-Researchers

Keith Kroll

Community college leaders have historically separated teaching from research, proudly proclaiming that their faculty members devote full attention to students rather than to out-of-class research. Over the past ten years, however, a growing number of critics have argued that the separation of teaching and scholarship (research being only one form of scholarship) is a false dichotomy that has weakened teaching effectiveness and professional development at the community college. Writers such as Simonds (1980), Jones (1982), Sledge (1987), Seidman (1985), Vaughan (1986, 1988), and Parilla (1986) define scholarship in ways that are appropriate for the community college and argue that faculty should view themselves as teachers and scholars.

Within the context of this broad view of scholarship, this essay discusses classroom research and the professional role of community college faculty as teacher-researchers who describe and assess the teaching and learning that goes on in their classrooms. Such classroom research—a key element of what Boyer (1990) calls "the scholarship of teaching"—has been viewed as an anchor for faculty scholarship at the community college. The AACJC Commission on the Future of Community Colleges (1988), for example, argues that "community colleges should define the role of the faculty member as classroom researcher—focusing evaluation on instruction and making a clear connection between what the teacher teaches and how students learn" (p. 27). The commission's statement clearly recognizes the potential scholarly contributions of faculty as teachers, contributions that may go unrecognized if scholarship is tied solely to research.

How is classroom research conducted and what are the larger ramifications for the professional roles ascribed to community college faculty? The four sections of this chapter address these questions. The first section posits a typology of classroom research models, with particular emphasis

on the roles these models ascribe to faculty and on their applicability to the community college. The second section discusses the ideology underlying the teacher-researcher movement and offers several reasons why community college faculty should become engaged in classroom research. The third section discusses ramifications, including political ones, for community college faculty when they take on the role of teacher-researcher. Finally, the fourth section provides suggestions for community college faculty and administrators interested in teacher-researcher classroom research.

Classroom Research Models

There are various ways to define and describe classroom research (see, for example, Aronowitz and Giroux, 1985; Calkins, 1985; Mohr and MacLean, 1987; Myers, 1985; Shulman, 1986). For the purposes of this essay five research models used in examining teaching and learning within classrooms will be presented (see Tables One and Two). The first two models, experimental research and school ethnography, employ (respectively) the quantitative and qualitative methods of social science and rarely involve teachers themselves. The remaining three—teacher-researcher ethnography, teacher-researcher ethnography/assessment, and teacher-researcher assessment—assume a key faculty role, thus shifting the control of the research agenda from professional educational researchers to practitioners who, in the final analysis, utilize the results of the research.

Experimental Research

Within the experimental model of educational research, two methods have been used to assess classroom teaching and learning: process-product research and academic learning time. As described by Shulman (1986), process-product research focuses on the effectiveness of teacher performance (processes) and on student learning (products). In the academic learning time method, the educational researcher studies the observable classroom behavior of students in order to determine teacher effectiveness. In both methods the researcher collects and analyzes data quantitatively. In neither method does the classroom teacher play an active part in research; each depends upon outside observers.

School Ethnography

As defined by Wilcox (1988), "Ethnography is first and foremost a *descriptive* endeavor in which the researcher attempts accurately to describe and interpret the nature of social discourse among a group of people" (p. 458). Erickson (1984) was one of the first to argue that with some changes the ethnographic research model is useful for studying schools, including (but not limited to) classroom activities. According to Goetz and LeCompte

Table 1. Classroom Research Models: No Teacher Involvement

	Experimental • Process–Product • Academic Learning Time	School Ethnography
Role of Classroom Teacher	Classroom teacher uninvolved in research; Research conducted by educational researcher	• Classroom teacher uninvolved in research, or • Collaborator with school ethnographer
Purpose	Assessment of classroom instruction in order to improve student learning and teacher effectiveness	Description and interpretation of the culture of the classroom
Audiences	• Educational researchers • Policy makers • Teachers	• School ethnographers • Policy makers • Teachers
Methods of Data Collection	• Standardized tests • Observational scales	• Observations • Field notes • Case study • Standardized tests
Methods of Data Analysis	Quantitative: statistical and analytical analysis	Qualitative emphasis but also quantitative
Example	• N.L. Gage, *The Scientific Basis of the Art of Teaching* • D.C. Berliner, "Tempus Educare"	• G. Spindler, *Doing the Ethnography of Schooling* • S. Florio and M. Walsh, "The Teacher as Colleague in Classroom Research"

Table 2. Classroom Research Models: Direct Teacher Involvement

	Teacher-Researcher Ethnography	Teacher-Researcher Ethnography/ Assessment	Teacher-Researcher Assessment
Role of Classroom Teacher	Teacher-researcher conducts research	Teacher-researcher conducts research	Teacher-researcher conducts research
Purpose	Description and interpretation of the culture of the classroom to generate pedagogical theory	Observation and formulation of research questions to assess classroom practice and student learning	Improvement of quality learning through the improvement of teaching effectiveness
Audiences	• Teacher-researcher • Other teacher-researchers • Policy makers	• Teacher-researcher • Other teacher-researchers • Policy makers	• Teacher-researcher • Other teacher-researchers • Policy makers
Methods of Data Collection	• Narrative descriptions • Informal journals • Recordings	• Observations • Student work • Pre- and post-tests	Classroom assessment techniques
Methods of Data Analysis	Qualitative	Qualitative and quantitative	Qualitative and quantitative
Example	• H. Tinberg, "A Model of Theory-Making for Writing Teachers: Local Knowledge"	• L. Odell, "The Classroom Teacher as Researcher"	• K. Patricia Cross and T.A. Angelo, *Classroom Assessment Techniques*

(1984), "The purpose of educational ethnography is to provide rich, descriptive data about the contexts, activities, and beliefs of participants in educational settings" (p. 17).

Within the school ethnography model, classroom teacher participation varies from no active involvement at all (Spindler, 1988) to that of collaboration with an educational researcher (Florio and Walsh, 1981; Kantor, 1990). But the purpose is usually to describe the culture of the institution as a whole rather than the teaching and learning that goes on in individual classroom settings. Examples of school ethnography include the works by London (1978) and Weis (1985), who spent a year or more participating in and describing the institutional character of an urban community college. Their studies provide insights into the cultural contexts within which teaching and learning take place at those institutions.

Teacher-Researcher Ethnography

The teacher-researcher ethnography model of classroom research has a more focused purpose, using the techniques of ethnographic field work to study learning in particular classroom environments. Teacher-researcher ethnography retains ethnographic characteristics because of the teacher-researcher's interest in describing the culture of the classroom and doing field work in the classroom, but it differs from school ethnography in several ways. First, the teacher makes his or her own observations in the role of teacher-researcher, rather than remaining on the sidelines as a nonparticipant. Second, school ethnography tends to be conducted over an extended period of time, whereas a teacher-researcher ethnography project might vary in length from one class period to one term or (at most) one school year. Third, in teacher-researcher ethnography the teacher-researcher focuses solely on his or her own classroom(s). A school ethnographer, on the other hand, may focus on several teachers' classrooms within one or more schools.

Tinberg (1990), who has proposed this classroom research model for community college faculty, argues that there is a "need to observe and to record, in detail, the ceremonies and transactions that take place in the classroom" (p. 19). With these observations, he points out, classroom teachers can begin to develop and understand the theories that underlie classroom practice. Inquiry and discovery are the primary purposes of this quasi-school ethnography, although assessment—defined throughout this essay as seeking to improve student learning and teacher effectiveness—may ultimately emerge from this model of classroom research.

Teacher-Researcher Ethnography/Assessment

The teacher-researcher ethnography/assessment classroom research model, best described by Odell (1976, 1987), appears to be the dominant

model of classroom research currently used by teacher-researchers. It retains ethnographic research methodology in that the classroom research continually emerges from the teacher-researcher's own classroom observations about his or her teaching. As Odell (1987) writes, "The process of exploration and discovery [which generates the research question] arises from a sense of dissonance or conflict, or uncertainty" (p. 129). It differs from the teacher-researcher ethnography model, however, in that the research questions that the teacher-researcher seeks to answer clearly involve the assessment of student learning and teacher effectiveness (Odell, 1976). While the teacher-researcher ethnography model seeks a broad understanding of all that goes on within the culture of a particular classroom, the teacher-researcher ethnographic/assessment model has the more specific goal of answering teacher questions about student learning and teacher effectiveness.

Teacher-Researcher Assessment

The fifth type of classroom research, teacher-researcher assessment, described by Cross and Angelo (1988, 1989), emphasizes the development and use of simple feedback techniques that can be incorporated into the teaching process to determine if students are learning what is being taught. As an example of such a feedback technique, Cross (1990) notes that "a study of critical thinking in the classroom . . . might begin with the assignment of a task that requires critical thinking and permits systematic observations about how students approach the task and how well they perform" (p. 15).

Though the use of defined feedback techniques differentiates this model from teacher-researcher ethnography/assessment, which emphasizes a broader process of discovery and inquiry within the classroom leading to the formulation of research questions, there are similarities between the two models. Like the teacher-researcher ethnographic/assessment model, assessment of learning is the key focus. As Cross and Angelo (1989) explain, "The purpose of classroom research is to improve the quality of learning in college classrooms by improving the effectiveness of teaching" (p. 24). In addition, both models assume faculty ownership of the research. Cross and Angelo (1988) emphasize that "the research most likely to improve teaching and learning is conducted by teachers on questions they themselves have formulated in response to problems or issues in their own teaching" (p. 2).

Appropriateness for the Community College

The three teacher-researcher models listed above are the most appropriate and beneficial for community college faculty in all disciplines. Research undertaken within these models derives from and is used by

faculty themselves. Ideally a combination of all three of these teacher-researcher models provides the best approach to classroom research and to the promotion of faculty scholarship through teaching. This combined approach proceeds from the general to the specific: the field work of teacher-researcher ethnography helps faculty come to an understanding of the classroom culture in general. This understanding, in turn, leads to more specific research questions that guide the teacher-researcher ethnography/assessment model. Finally, the teacher-researcher assessment model provides assessment techniques for determining teacher effectiveness and student performance within the context of specific learning objectives.

By arguing for community college faculty to become teacher-researchers within the context of the latter three models, I do not mean to diminish the importance and value of the more traditional experimental and school ethnography models. All five models have their uses. As Shulman (1986) points out, "Different programs of research are likely to produce different types of knowledge about teaching, knowledge of interest to theoreticians, policy makers, and practitioners" (p. 27). But if the goal of classroom research is to apply faculty scholarship to the understanding and improvement of student learning, then research models that involve faculty themselves (rather than outside researchers) must be employed.

Community College Faculty as Teacher-Researchers

Why should community college faculty members become teacher-researchers actively involved in classroom research, and why should community college leaders encourage and support community college faculty as teacher-researchers? There are several compelling answers to this question: to close the link between educational research and practice, to respond to demands for information on institutional effectiveness, and to improve teaching itself. Each of these answers posits a strong faculty role within the institution. Hence the underlying ideology of the teacher-researcher movement has implications for college governance as well as educational research.

Ownership of Pedagogical Theory

For years a gap has existed between educational research and classroom practice. Educational researchers complain that classroom teachers dislike educational theory and are more interested in knowing what they can do in class on Monday morning to survive. Classroom teachers respond that educational researchers produce theories that have no direct pedagogical application in the classroom. While both points of view have some validity, the real problem lies less in the relevance of theory than

in the question of professional investment in and ownership of that theory. Because teachers are rarely involved in educational research, many faculty members, including community college instructors, do not have a sense of owning the theory that guides classroom pedagogy. As Berthoff (1981) argues, "Educational research is nothing to our purpose, unless we [teachers] formulate the questions; . . . if the questions . . . are not originally REformulated [sic] by those who are working in the classroom, educational research is pointless" (p. 31).

Berthoff's assertion is supported in the literature by the arguments for and descriptions of classroom research undertaken by teacher-researchers themselves. (See, for example, Bissex and Bullock, 1987; Daiker and Morenberg, 1990; Goswami and Stillman, 1987; and Miller, 1990). By becoming teacher-researchers and analyzing questions that emerge in their own classrooms, faculty members generate, revise, and assess pedagogical theory. The scope of research is no longer left to outside researchers (as is the case with traditional, experimental research). Ownership of educational theory reverts to those who make use of it.

Assessment

A second answer to the question of why faculty should become teacher-researchers concerns the growing demand (from both inside and outside the college) for good-faith efforts to assess student learning, teacher performance, and program and institutional effectiveness. Though community colleges face mounting pressure from outside groups, including accrediting associations and governmental bodies, for assessments of student performance, many two-year colleges are not well prepared to meet these demands (Alfred and Linder, 1990). Both faculty and administrators are hampered by the traditional barriers between their roles in the community college. If colleges are to collect information about student learning and teacher performance, the faculty role in institutional assessment and decision making will have to be increased.

Classroom research models that cast the faculty member in the role of a teacher-researcher provide one way for community colleges to gain information about student learning and teacher performance based on actual experiences in the classroom. These models also provide community colleges with the opportunity to assess the effectiveness of specific academic programs. Finally, classroom research will encourage and improve involvement of faculty in the college and overcome some of the powerlessness community college faculty currently experience in institutional decision making (Alfred and Linder, 1990). Through their role as teacher-researchers, community college faculty would finally be involved in curriculum development and evaluation.

Effects on Teaching

A third response to the question of why community college faculty should become teacher-researchers lies in the accounts of classroom teachers who have had experience in this role (Bissex and Bullock, 1987; Goswami and Stillman, 1987; Miller, 1990; Mohr and MacLean, 1987). Besides promoting teacher ownership of educational theory, classroom research forces teachers to look closely at their own teaching and to view it in new ways. Such professional reflection and analysis combats stagnation because it requires a continual re-examination of teaching approaches in a quest to find those that are most effective and root out those that are ineffective. In addition, it provides a positive and nonthreatening impetus for change in pedagogical techniques, builds a sense of community with other teacher-researchers (especially when results are shared), and empowers students by creating a classroom environment that encourages collaborative and cooperative learning.

Ideology Underlying Teacher Research

The argument for community college faculty as teacher-researchers clearly alters the traditional role and perception of the classroom teacher both inside and outside the classroom and the college. Educational researchers and school ethnographers are no longer the only groups creating, revising, and assessing educational theory and practice. They are now joined (not excluded) by teacher-researchers who create and revise educational theory, assess the effects of their own pedagogy on student learning, and ultimately own and control the theories that underlie classroom practice. Through their classroom research, teacher-researchers seek and achieve new and greater authority within their classrooms, their colleges, and higher education as a whole.

By becoming teacher-researchers with the support of college leaders, the traditional roles of teachers and administrators are altered. As teacher-researchers, community college faculty will play a stronger, more important, and necessary role within their respective colleges, particularly in terms of assessment and strategic decisions concerning academic programs and curricula. Teacher-conducted research, then, redefines not only the role of the classroom teacher, but also the governance model for the community college. In the final analysis, most answers to the question of why faculty members should become teacher-researchers touch on the issue of governance.

The Role of Teacher-Researchers

What does it mean for community college faculty members to become teacher-researchers? The ramifications not only involve one's self-identity

as a teacher, but also include the teacher-researcher's role in the classroom and in the college as a whole. Finally, the underlying political ramifications must be acknowledged.

Teacher-Researcher Self-Identity

As discussed above, becoming a teacher-researcher may require faculty members to perceive themselves in new ways. Community college faculty who have previously viewed themselves as teachers, not researchers (particularly when research is defined as basic research of the type that is commonly carried out at the university), may resist or misunderstand the teacher-researcher role. As Mohr and MacLean (1987) acknowledge, beginning teacher-researchers may at first experience a tension between the roles of teaching and researching, particularly because they cannot distance themselves from the research. The actions and goals of the teacher may at times conflict with the actions and goals of the researcher. Mohr and MacLean argue, and the reports of teacher-researchers confirm, that these conflicts are resolved as the teacher becomes more comfortable in the role of teacher-researcher. Ultimately, as Bissex and Bullock (1987) argue, a "teacher-researcher is not . . . a split personality but a *more complete teacher*" (p. 5).

Roles Within the Classroom

Becoming a teacher-researcher also engenders a new model of teacher and student behavior in the classroom. In the teacher-researcher's classroom, education is no longer simply "an act of depositing, in which the students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor" (Freire, 1989, p. 58). Instead, teacher-researchers continually study the culture of the classroom (Tinberg, 1990), inquire into the nature of their teaching and into the scope of student learning (Odell, 1976, 1987), and assess their own effectiveness (Cross and Angelo, 1988, 1989). In these classrooms, students are treated as equals and with respect. Their opinions are valued. They are encouraged to become involved in the life of the classroom, to realize their own potential, and to interact with other students through collaborative learning. When this occurs, the classroom becomes a community of learners (Goswami and Stillman, 1987).

Roles Beyond the Classroom

The ramifications of teacher-conducted research extend beyond the classroom, particularly for community college faculty. Although the primary purpose of classroom research is to enhance teaching and student learning within specific classroom contexts, teacher-researchers should be encouraged to share the results of their efforts with the larger professional community. Several benefits will derive from this larger distribution.

First, community college administrators will benefit by gaining access to additional and essential information that will aid in curricular decision making. Through the insights gained by describing and assessing classroom pedagogy, faculty can play a larger role in strategic decisions concerning teaching and learning. Increased faculty involvement in decision making, however, will depend on the degree to which college administrators reconceptualize the role of community college faculty in college governance and revise their definitions of research and scholarship. While such changes may at first seem improbable, if not revolutionary, it is heartening to note that many college leaders, including those on the AACJC Commission on the Future of Community Colleges (1988), endorse the teacher-researcher role for faculty and support the related themes of student empowerment as active learners and of teacher-researcher involvement in curriculum and program assessment.

Second, sharing results with other educators through college seminars, state and national conferences, and professional publications will help establish a large body of classroom research studies that may be analyzed. An accessible body of classroom research studies will allow teacher-researchers to test the validity and reliability of their own research efforts. As Mohr and MacLean (1987) state:

> Through the specific nature of teacher-researchers' reports and the personal nature of their interpretations, other teachers and readers see the generalizable "truths" that can be reliably interpreted as applicable in their classrooms. No classroom setting with all its variables can be replicated or controlled, but with enough information and solid, explanatory analysis, readers may discover findings that do apply in their own work with their own students (p. 64).

Third, sharing classroom research results with other educators will provide community college faculty with an opportunity to become part of the larger community of scholars. Studies have consistently shown that community college faculty have for too long been isolated from their respective disciplines and colleagues in two-year and four-year colleges (Seidman, 1985). As teachers in a sector of higher education now enrolling close to 51 percent of all first-time college students and over 40 percent of all undergraduates (AACJC Commission on the Future of Community Colleges, 1988), community college teacher-researchers should have and can have a stronger voice in higher education.

Political Ramifications of Teacher Research

Calls for faculty to take on the teacher-researcher role are not without political ramifications; as Berlin (1990) points out, the ideology underlying the teacher-as-researcher movement stresses "democratization of

authority" in education (p. 10). Teacher-researchers gain authority over the educational theory that supports classroom practice. They gain a voice inside the college through their active involvement in strategic decisions concerning curricula, and they gain authority outside their colleges through active involvement in their respective disciplines. Finally, students in the classrooms of teacher-researchers gain authority by becoming active participants and learners rather than passive consumers of facts. According to Berlin and to writers such as Aronowitz and Giroux (1985), all of these outcomes, which strengthen teacher and student authority, are counter to the ideology of many educational reformers who, in response to the crisis in American education, suggest reforms that ignore or weaken the authority of classroom teachers by imposing prepackaged curricula that assume that all students learn the same way in all classrooms.

Nowhere else in American higher education is the democratic ideal more sought after than in the community college. But are community colleges truly democratic institutions? Yes and no, depending upon whom you read. Certainly efforts to encourage community college faculty to become teacher-researchers will go a long way to strengthen the democratic ideal of the community college.

Developing Classroom Research Projects

There are teacher-researchers and teacher-research groups and projects throughout the country. Currently the most notable project involving community college faculty is the Classroom Research Project headed by K. Patricia Cross at the University of California, Berkeley (Cross and Angelo, 1989). While the support such projects provide is helpful, there are enough materials now available (and still more materials becoming available) to assist community college faculty in their own classroom research efforts.

How should community colleges go about starting a departmental or campuswide classroom research project? The following list provides several suggestions.

- Faculty involvement in the project should be voluntary, and faculty should (if possible) receive some form of compensation.
- A first-time classroom research project might be more manageable and beneficial if three or four faculty members are selected from two or three departments. Ultimately, it should be a college goal to incorporate classroom research into the college's faculty development activities.
- The six to twelve project members should spend some time at the beginning of the project reading and discussing the available material

about classroom research. (Several of the items listed in the reference section will be helpful.)

- The classroom research model should include all three models of teacher research described in Table Two.
- Once a research question is formulated, the teacher-researchers should read material related to their individual investigations.
- Teacher-researchers should share their research findings with other project members, with college administrators who make strategic decisions concerning curricula, and with other colleagues both inside and outside of the college.

Teacher-researcher classroom research offers a new, exciting, and realistic model of teaching to community colleges. It is teacher-centered, classroom-based, and assessment-oriented. It provides community college faculty with an opportunity to develop and apply pedagogical theory and with a means for assessing their own teaching effectiveness. It encourages faculty participation in strategic decisions concerning curricula, and it promotes professional renewal by giving faculty a sense of purpose, by valuing what goes on in the classroom, and by building a sense of community with the larger community of scholars. All of these outcomes are essential to the future development and success of community colleges.

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Keith Kroll is a faculty member in the English department at Kalamazoo Valley Community College, Michigan.

CHAPTER FIVE

Scholarship, the Transformation of Knowledge, and Community College Teaching

James L. Ratcliff

Community college educators take pride in their commitment to teaching. They view the ideal faculty member as a concerned, dedicated, and effective teacher. The emphasis of this vision is on how teaching takes place, not on what is taught. Indeed, the teacher's expertise in a discipline's subject matter has until recently been trivialized, glossed over, and even treated with hostility by those writing about community college education.

The emphasis on method rather than content developed with the best of intentions. But the result has been a static vision of teaching, a diminished view of the transformation of subject expertise into ways of knowing for students, and a slighting of scholarship as a source of renewal and reinvigoration for community college faculty. Much of this oversight and antipathy originated during the second great growth period of community colleges (1955–1975), when many of today's community college faculty were hired. During this time, college leaders often expressed open hostility toward scholarship and the role of subject matter expertise in the pre-service education of two-year college teachers. For example, Garrison (1967) argued that preparation for scholarship is not the same as preparation for teaching. O'Banion (1972) concurred, viewing scholarship and subject matter expertise as potentially negative forces that may cause faculty to enter community college teaching with "academic biases which seem to conflict abruptly with their responsibility for teaching the common man" (p. 21).

Even where no open hostility to scholarship existed, there was no clear vision of how faculty members should sustain an intellectual engagement with their teaching fields. Although the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges (1969) called for rigorous graduate preparation in subject matter, the association provided no indication of what such

graduate preparation should entail, why it was important, or what kind of scholarly activity might be desirable for faculty after attaining the master's degree. The leaders of community college in-service and graduate preparation programs, usually housed in the education schools of universities, were no more articulate. While they agreed that a master's degree was the appropriate minimum preparation for those teaching college-parallel courses, they provided no clear indication of how subject matter expertise and scholarship might contribute to the renewal and continued professional development of faculty (Vaughan, 1989). As a result, the master's degree became the standard credential for admission to the profession. But the contribution of subject matter expertise, beyond that of fodder for transmission of information to students, remained obscure. A common underlying assumption was that if the faculty member was competent in conveying the subject matter and in understanding the specific learning needs, interests, and abilities of students, good teaching would take place. Little heed was given to the nature of the subject matter to be taught or to changes in the content and modes of inquiry in one's field of study.

As community colleges move into the twenty-first century, the essential link between disciplinary expertise and teaching effectiveness must be acknowledged. This chapter examines the nature of the relationship between the two and concludes with a discussion of implications for faculty development within an institution dedicated to learning and scholarly inquiry.

The Curriculum as Knowledge

That which is taught in college is of necessity based on some body of knowledge (Squires, 1990). This basic though often forgotten premise is at the heart of what mediates scholarship, faculty renewal, and effective teaching. Consider, for example, the following questions:

- How do you clearly convey ideas to students?
- How do you clearly convey ideas about the causes of the American Civil War to students?

The questions are fundamentally different. The second question inserts a body of knowledge (American history) and a mode of inquiry (historical research) into the formulation of effective teaching. Similarly, "How do you clearly convey ideas about the causes of the American Civil War?" is different from "How do you clearly convey the ideas of pitch and tone in playing the violin?" The body of knowledge adds dimension, complexity, and elegance to the task of teaching and to the talents required of its practitioners. The vision of teaching without reference to what is to be taught stultifies and oversimplifies the teaching process (Shulman,

1990). More importantly, it denies the importance of scholarship in good teaching.

Despite the critical intersection between instructional methods and the knowledge base, previous writers on community college instruction have portrayed teaching as transferring knowledge (Cohen and Brawer, 1972; Gleazer, 1968; O'Banion, 1972). It became popular in the 1960s and 1970s to use Bloom's (1954) *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* to place what is to be learned on a linear plane from simple recall and understanding of facts to the analysis, synthesis, and evaluation of knowledge, skills, and abilities. See, for example, the League for Innovation's 1981 monograph, *Teaching in the Community College.* This view of instruction as knowledge transfer cast most curricula as a static set of facts to be consumed, understood, and recalled by students. The role of the discipline in mediating instruction went unmentioned.

Several attributes of the curriculum are ignored when teaching is viewed as the transmission of knowledge. First, collegiate studies, be they in physics or Spanish literature, involve the conceptualization and explanation of people, phenomena, and ideas, not simply the memorization of facts. Second, each college-level subject area has its own mode of inquiry and its own way of organizing knowledge. Biologists learn a way of examining phenomena that is quite different from the methods used by psychologists. These modes of inquiry and analysis are not simply abstract qualities; they are valued by students, employers, and faculty as the hallmarks of the intellectual contribution of the field of study to society as a whole. Third, the knowledge base of a discipline does not remain static; it is cumulative or developmental in nature. Why is it that microeconomics, macroeconomics, and quantitative methods of analysis are common core subjects in the field of economics? Why does chemistry typically include organic and inorganic courses? The answer to these questions is partly attributable to the unique way in which the content and method of these disciplines are organized to produce cumulative and developmental effects on students. Teachers do not impart discrete facts; they help students develop—on a step-by-step basis—a knowledge base that will enable them to employ specific modes of inquiry in interpreting and conceptualizing the world around them.

Recognition of the theoretical or conceptual complexities of a subject, its modes of inquiry and organization, and its cumulative or developmental nature elevates the enterprise of teaching; those who would understand this enterprise need more than teaching tips leading to the effective transmission of information. The teacher's task is to use the appropriate mode of inquiry to represent the concepts, terms, and ideas of the knowledge base. It is through this process of transforming the knowledge base that learning occurs (Shulman 1990). Students acquire more than the salient

dates and events pertaining to the Civil War; they also learn the major social, economic, and political interpretations of how the war came about and how different historians arrive at the various conclusions regarding its origins. In short, students learn not only facts, but also ways of framing and conceptualizing those facts.

The transformation of knowledge, using concepts and modes of inquiry that help students learn, is a challenging and worthy lifelong profession. Such transformation, where the discipline mediates the pedagogy, elevates teaching beyond the repeated transmission of knowledge that faculty members learned while they were graduate students. It suggests a new and vital role for faculty development and faculty scholarship—scholarship that involves sustained reflection, dialogue, and inquiry. Viewed in this light, teaching becomes more intellectually challenging than research, in which modes of inquiry are applied to a discrete part of the knowledge base in order to produce or test a new understanding, insight, or set of findings. The teacher requires broader skills; he or she must devise representations of knowledge, concepts, and means of inquiry so that students can comprehend, apply, and begin to utilize the range of perspectives, frames of reference, and ways of problem solving that are attendant to specific disciplines. This view of teaching calls for continued intellectual engagement in the field of study and suggests a clear link between subject matter scholarship and faculty vitality.

The Role of Difficult Concepts in Scholarship and Teaching

Once one acknowledges that the field of study mediates and adds definition to the teaching-learning process, then it follows that not all ideas and skills within a field are equally easy to learn. For example, a recent focus group of history faculty determined that while it was relatively easy to teach particular events in history, it is more difficult to lead students to an understanding of the concept of time itself and to an understanding of how events can be placed in a historical context (Ratcliff, 1991b). Shulman (1990) has suggested that the history of a field of study reveals which concepts may be more demanding for students to grasp. For example, the history of the development of mathematics over the centuries reveals that the concepts of zero and negative numbers evolved over relatively long periods of time, reflecting the fact that they are—in relation to other, more concrete concepts—more difficult to understand. Is it no wonder that students usually have more difficulty comprehending negative numbers or the concept of zero than the principles of multiplication or division?

If some concepts are more difficult for students to grasp than others, it follows that faculty will have more difficulty teaching certain topics and

concepts than others. The ability to teach relatively difficult concepts depends not only on the instructional methods used, but also on the insights gained through scholarly inquiry into the evolution of those concepts. This does not mean that community college faculty should imitate university faculty; scholarship may or may not involve experimental research and publication. But regardless of the form scholarship takes, it should be driven by an inquiry into how difficult concepts may be represented and transformed in ways that make them understandable and meaningful to students. This is a logical, challenging, and critical role for faculty whose primary role is teaching students in the first two years of college.

The Role of Socially Troublesome Topics

Troublesome topics also pose challenges to the classroom teacher. Here society, rather than the field of knowledge itself, has created circumstances in which study of a topic takes on new meaning, motivating new scholarship and inquiry (Ratcliff, 1991a). It is the crucible-like nature of the curriculum to place before students and scholars the unresolved issues of our society—be they civil rights, abortion, or war—and subject them to scrutiny outside the political and social contexts in which they exist. College curricula have always taken up the politically charged issues of the era. With their close ties to the community, two-year colleges are particularly adept in serving as forums for issues of social ferment.

Study of the Vietnam War is a good example of a socially troubling topic. Here disciplines such as history or political science render an order to the examination of an issue that is otherwise charged with emotion. Pike (1985), for example, urges the use of objective social science inquiry to weigh the conflicting interpretations of the war. In the wake of new historical information that vastly revises much of what anyone—left, right, or center—knew about the war, he urges faculty to engage in scholarly reflection on this new information and to apply their conclusions to how the war is conceptualized and taught in the classroom. Similarly, Wilcox (1988) advocates the use of primary sources in teaching about the Vietnam War. This approach, he maintains, encourages student questioning and discussion of issues surrounding the war within a framework of discipline-guided inquiry. Within this framework, the task of teaching is not merely to provide a foundation of knowledge about the war, but also to help students employ an academic discipline's tools as a means of generating thinking, interpretation, and analysis.

Troublesome topics bring excitement, imagination, and motivation to the faculty and students who study them. In stimulating disciplinary scholarship they foster the evolution of the curriculum, shaping its transitional nature and underscoring the key relationship between curriculum

and inquiry. Subjects or topics sanguine for one generation of students may not be for the next. The coursework embodying troublesome topics may enter the curriculum from the extracurriculum; these topics may reside in the curriculum for a decade or more and then may wane or disappear as the topic's salience subsides. Ultimately a course on a socially troubling topic may be discontinued for lack of student demand or may migrate to the secondary school curriculum as examination of the topic becomes more widespread.

Toward an Enhanced Vision of Teaching and Scholarship

Clearly, academic disciplines play a vital role in scholarly inquiry. They teach people ways of knowing and ways of examining issues, events, and phenomena. Faculty who learn a discipline learn more than facts; they learn the values, norms, and modes of inquiry attendant to a particular field of study (Biglan, 1973a, 1973b). From this perspective, there is much that is literal about the term "discipline." Disciplines habituate and order our thinking; they provide frames of reference for viewing problems. Most importantly, they guide how we transform our knowledge of the field of study into representations that students can understand and from which they can learn different ways of viewing a situation. Disciplines provide us with the knowledge base and the tools for critical review and analysis. These tools are particularly important in understanding and teaching topics that are relatively difficult to comprehend or that raise particularly troublesome social issues.

Recognizing the key role of the discipline leads to a recognition of the symbiotic relationship between teaching and scholarship. As Vaughan (1988) reminds us, scholarship and teaching are inseparable: "The discipline and thinking required to be a scholar sharpens the critical skills of the individual. It is only through critical review and analysis that we as colleges and as individuals can formulate positions on the issues of the day and in turn interpret these issues to our students" (p. 9). Through scholarship we come to recognize that what we teach is based on a body of knowledge with theoretical and conceptual elements. These facets of the knowledge base sustain both the interest in and the importance of the discipline or field of study. They also shape the act of teaching itself.

The importance of discipline-specific scholarship, however, is rarely recognized by community college leaders, who continue to structure in-service education for faculty around campus-based workshops on instructional techniques or "the community college philosophy" (Cohen and Brawer, 1989). This is contrary to the real needs of faculty, who want professional development in their teaching fields. It also turns a blind eye to the important role disciplinary debates play in collegiate life. Rather

than viewing disciplinary scholarship as a threat to the role of the community college teacher, administrators should embrace the notion of scholarship and embody the expectation of continuous professional renewal in the subject matter within the ethic of the learning community. Several steps can be taken to accomplish this:

- Those planning professional development programs should recognize that difficult concepts and socially troubling topics have a direct bearing on teaching effectiveness. Teacher evaluation forms and student ratings of instruction need to be revised accordingly. Faculty dialogue, development, and scholarship need to give focus to the concepts, issues, and topics most difficult for students to learn.
- A department or division can schedule a monthly seminar, with faculty suggesting the topic. Because the interaction of faculty and students outside the classroom contributes to retention (Pascarella and Terenzini, 1991), these seminars should be open to students as well.
- Divisions structured around related disciplines (rather than single-discipline departments) will also help. Such configurations are ideal for ferreting out the different frames of reference each discipline brings to the understanding of concepts, phenomena, and issues.
- Finally, a certain proportion of faculty development funds should be set aside for participation in discipline-based professional meetings. Because content mediates pedagogy in effective teaching, faculty need the opportunity and encouragement to engage the field of study, to explore the emerging paradigms of inquiry within their field, and to learn what their colleagues are thinking and how they are teaching in other institutional environments.

Faculty involvement in disciplinary associations will be particularly difficult to achieve. Such disciplinary associations tend to be dominated by research university faculty, and the programs often focus on research rather than teaching. This will always be the case until community college faculty are enabled to be full and active participants in associations representing the fields of study they teach. Each community college should set a goal of having several faculty members in leadership positions in disciplinary associations. These organizations can be used to enrich the college curriculum, faculty development, and the quality and currency of instruction.

Conclusion

The field of study plays a fundamental role in the renewal of community college faculty. New knowledge is not necessarily generated from research alone. It comes from new syntheses and analyses of the knowledge

base of the field of study. By thinking about the teaching process and how to convey, represent, and explore difficult concepts and troublesome topics, we generate new ideas, conceptualizations, and approaches within the field of study. Engagement in the literature of the discipline enriches teaching and stimulates a culture of inquiry that we so desperately seek in our college classrooms.

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James L. Ratcliff is professor and director, Center for the Study of Higher Education, Pennsylvania State University.

CHAPTER SIX

The Scholarly Activities of Community College Faculty: Findings of a National Survey

James C. Palmer

How active are community college faculty members in scholarly work outside of classroom teaching? Few national surveys have addressed this question, and those that do usually analyze scholarship from the perspective of research and publication. For example, Cohen and Brawer (1977) assessed, among other constructs, the "research orientation" of community college humanities faculty, determining that only a minority had published at some point during their careers or had applied for research grants from outside agencies. A more recent survey conducted by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (1989) came to the predictable finding that four-year college faculty were more likely than two-year college faculty to view research (rather than teaching) as their primary interest and to have received research grants over the past twelve months. The U.S. Department of Education provided corroborating evidence in its 1988 survey of faculty, noting that four-year college faculty spend considerably more time per week on research than two-year college faculty; the latter, however, spend more time per week on teaching than the former (Russell and others, 1990). Finally, a national survey conducted during the 1989–90 academic year by UCLA's Higher Education Research Institute found that two-year college faculty were less likely than four-year college faculty to publish and to view research as an essential or important part of their work (Astin and others, 1991).

These findings reflect the negligible role assigned to published research in the community college mission. But they say little about the contributions community college faculty make within the broader framework of scholarship posited by Vaughan at the beginning of this monograph. Though it may be conceded that relatively few community college faculty are published researchers, little is known about the degree to which faculty produce other scholarly products that are rooted in

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the knowledge of one's discipline and that are open to the criticism of others.

In order to understand faculty scholarship within this broader context, George Mason University's Center for Community College Education, with assistance from the National Council for Instructional Administrators, an AACJC-affiliated council, surveyed a national sample of faculty members at public community, technical, and junior colleges. Conducted in the spring of 1991, the survey solicited information related to five questions:

- What proportion of the faculty engage in scholarly projects along the broad lines defined by Vaughan?
- What types of projects are faculty most likely to engage in?
- In carrying out these projects, what support do faculty receive, if any, from their institutions and their colleagues?
- In the opinion of faculty members, what are the factors that limit their ability to work on these projects?
- How do faculty feel about the role out-of-class scholarship plays in their professional lives?

The survey methodology (detailed in the appendix to this monograph) was designed to oversample full-time faculty and those teaching the liberal arts and sciences (as opposed to those teaching vocational or technical fields). Usable responses were received from 840 randomly selected faculty members at 101 randomly selected colleges (See Table One for a profile of the respondents). The following pages outline major findings and conclude with a discussion of implications for college leaders seeking to create an institutional culture that encourages faculty in their scholarly endeavors.

Faculty Involvement in Scholarship

Adhering to the broad definition of scholarship proposed by Vaughan (1988), the survey instrument listed a wide array of products that may be shared with others and that ostensibly require those who produce them to have a solid grounding in their fields of study. Respondents to the survey were asked to indicate how many of each they had completed during the past two years. These products can be placed in seven broad categories:

- *Conference papers*
- *Publications*, including books, journal articles, published reviews of creative works, editorials or op-ed pieces, chapters in edited volumes, and published textbooks
- *Instructional materials*, including instructional software and unpublished textbooks or learning guides that are used by colleagues (and not simply in one's own classes)

Table One
Characteristics of Survey Respondents (n = 840)

	Full-Time Respondents	Part-Time Respondents
Gender		
Male	65%	52%
Female	35%	48%
Age		
Under 30	3%	7%
30–44	35%	44%
45–54	42%	24%
55–64	19%	17%
65 or over	1%	7%
Highest Degree Earned		
Associate	2%	2%
Bachelor's	8%	20%
Master's	67%	61%
Ph.D.	16%	9%
Ed.D.	4%	4%
Other	4%	3%
Subject of Highest Degree		
Arts and Sciences	54%	48%
Education	22%	15%
Vocational/Technical	24%	33%
Other	0%	4%
Years Teaching at the Community College Level		
Less than One Year	2%	12%
1–2 Years	5%	18%
3–4 Years	9%	18%
5–10 Years	20%	24%
11–20 Years	33%	19%
Over 20 Years	29%	8%

Note: 75 percent of the respondents were full-time faculty members; 25 percent were part-time faculty members.

- *Research or technical reports* that are disseminated internally to the college or to other clients
- *Community informational materials*, such as brochures or pamphlets that are designed for the general public or to help area businesses improve operations
- *Exhibits or performances in the fine arts*
- *Technical innovations*, such as a patented invention, a new technology for use in the operation of a business or industry, or computer software designed for noninstructional purposes
- *Other products* (the respondents were asked to describe other scholarly products they have completed but that do not fall into any of the categories listed above)

Given the wide array of products listed on the survey instrument, most respondents found at least one that applied to their own scholarly work. Eighty-six percent of the full-time respondents and 75 percent of the part-time respondents indicated that they had produced at least one of these products during the past two years. Among full-timers, the median number of products completed per faculty member was five; among part timers, the median number was six.

What is the nature of this work? Because respondents were not asked to describe the scholarly products they completed, the survey provides only a rough picture of the types of scholarly work community college faculty engage in. The products most often completed by the respondents are the traditional standbys of academe: papers delivered at professional conferences (completed by 55 percent of the full-time faculty and 51 percent of the part-time faculty) and publications (completed by 36 percent of the full-timers and 29 percent of the part-timers). Instructional materials to be used by colleagues were a close third (34 percent of the full-timers and 23 percent of the part-timers), followed by research or technical reports (28 percent of the full-timers and 14 percent of the part-timers), community informational materials (23 percent of the full-timers and 20 percent of the part-timers), exhibits or performances in the fine arts (16 percent of the full-timers and 20 percent of the part-timers), and technical innovations (12 percent of the full-timers and 15 percent of the part-timers).

Are some faculty members more likely than others to engage in scholarly work outside of the classroom? Not if one looks across the broad categories of products listed on the survey instrument (Table Two). For example, the proportion of full-time faculty indicating that they have completed at least one of these products hovers at approximately 85 to 90 percent regardless of teaching field (liberal arts or vocational/technical fields), highest degree earned (master's or doctorate), the subject area of that degree (liberal arts, education, or vocational/technical fields), the

Table Two
Proportion of Full-Time Faculty Completing at Least One Scholarly Product, by Selected Characteristics

	% Completing	
	At Least One	None
All Faculty	86%	14%
By Teaching Field		
Liberal Arts & Sciences	85%	15%
Vocational/Technical	87%	13%
By Highest Degree Earned		
Master's	85%	15%
Doctorate	90%	10%
By Field of Highest Degree		
Liberal Arts & Sciences	85%	15%
Education	85%	15%
Vocational/Technical	88%	12%
By Year Highest Degree Was Earned		
1974–1991	87%	13%
1973 or Earlier	85%	15%
By Years Teaching Experience at the Community College Level		
0–10 Years	83%	17%
11 or More Years	87%	13%
By Gender		
Male	86%	14%
Female	84%	16%
By Age		
Under 30	85%	15%
30–44	85%	15%
45–54	88%	12%
55–64	82%	18%
65 or Older	90%	10%

year in which the degree was earned, the number of years of teaching experience at the community college level, gender, or age.

Yet, when one looks within categories, it becomes evident that some faculty are more likely to produce certain types of scholarly products than others. These variances are quite predictable. For example, data in Table Three suggest that those teaching the liberal arts and sciences are more likely to have published (41 percent) than those teaching in vocational/technical fields (28 percent). Vocational/technical faculty, however, are much more likely than their colleagues in the arts and sciences to have worked on instructional materials (43 percent versus 30 percent) or technical innovations (21 percent versus 7 percent). A similar pattern emerges when one contrasts the scholarly work of those who hold degrees in the liberal arts and sciences on the one hand and those who hold degrees in education or in vocational/technical areas on the other (Table Four). The former are more likely to publish and less likely to work on educational materials, technical innovations, and community informational materials. Finally, the type of degree one holds also comes into play (Table Five). Almost 50 percent holding a doctorate have published, compared to only 36 percent of those holding the master's degree. In addition, doctoral degree holders are more likely to have produced research or technical reports than master's degree holders. Those holding the master's degree, on the

Table Three
Percent of Full-Time Respondents Completing One or More Scholarly Products During the Past Two Years, by Teaching Field and Type of Product

	Full-Time Faculty Who Teach:	
% Who Have Completed	Liberal Arts and Sciences	Vocational/ Technical Fields
Any Scholarly Product	85%	87%
Conference Papers	57%	51%
Publications	41%	28%
Instructional Materials	30%	43%
Research/Technical Reports	27%	29%
Community Informational Materials	20%	29%
Exhibits, Performances in Fine Arts	20%	8%
Technical Innovations	7%	21%
Other Products	19%	18%

Table Four
Percent of Full-Time Respondents Completing One or More Scholarly Products During the Past Two Years, by Subject of Highest Degree and Type of Product

	Subject of Highest Degree Held		
% Who Have Completed	Liberal Arts and Sciences	Education	Vocational/ Technical
Any Scholarly Product	85%	85%	88%
Conference Papers	58%	55%	46%
Publications	41%	28%	32%
Instructional Materials	30%	42%	38%
Research/Technical Reports	28%	29%	27%
Community Informational Materials	19%	27%	26%
Exhibits, Performances in Fine Arts	18%	15%	9%
Technical Innovations	9%	14%	17%
Other Products	18%	19%	19%

Table Five
Percent of Full-Time Respondents Completing One or More Scholarly Products During the Past Two Years, by Level of Highest Degree Held and Type of Product

	Highest Degree Held	
% Who Have Completed	Master's	Doctorate
Any Scholarly Product	85%	90%
Conference Papers	56%	61%
Publications	36%	49%
Instructional Materials	37%	29%
Research/Technical Reports	29%	38%
Community Informational Materials	26%	17%
Exhibits, Performances in Fine Arts	18%	7%
Technical Innovations	12%	9%
Other Products	17%	26%

other hand, are more likely than those holding the doctorate to work on instructional materials or community informational materials.

Other variances emerged when findings were compared by gender (Table Six). For example, women are less likely than men to publish but more likely than men to attend conferences. The reasons for these variances are a matter of speculation. Part of the explanation for the variance in the rate of publication may lie in the fact that women are less likely than men to hold a doctorate (14 percent versus 22 percent, respectively). But this seems to be counterbalanced by the fact that men are more likely to teach vocational/technical subjects than women (59 percent versus 49 percent respectively). Perhaps family commitments come into play; 34 percent of the women responding to the survey, as opposed to 21 percent of the men, indicated that time required for family responsibilities was a factor that limited their scholarly work.

But whatever the reasons, academic factors remain important variables. The differences emerging in the types of scholarly products completed by those with a doctorate and those with a master's degree and by those in the liberal arts and sciences and those in vocational/technical fields apply to both men and women (See Tables Seven and Eight). Among men teaching on a full time basis, for example, those who had published were more likely to hold a doctorate or to teach in the liberal arts and sciences than those who did not. On the other hand, men who taught vocational/technical fields or who held the master's degree as the highest credential were more likely to have worked on instructional materials. The same pattern holds for women. Regardless of gender, the traditions of one's academic background and teaching discipline help guide scholarly work, differentiating, particularly, between those who are more likely to publish on the one hand and those who are more likely to engage in less traditional

Table Six
Percent of Full-Time Respondents Completing One or More Scholarly Products During the Past Two Years, by Gender and Type of Product

% Who Have Completed	Men	Women
Conference Papers	52%	60%
Publications	40%	30%
Instructional Materials	36%	32%
Research/Technical Reports	30%	24%
Community Informational Materials	23%	23%
Exhibits, Performances in Fine Arts	18%	12%
Technical Innovations	14%	9%
Other Products	18%	20%

Table Seven
Percent of Full-Time, Male Respondents Completing One or More Scholarly Products During the Past Two Years, by Selected Characteristics

By Teaching Field	Liberal Arts and Sciences	Vocational/ Technical
Conference Papers	54%	49%
Publications	44%	32%
Instructional Materials	30%	45%
Research/Technical Reports	30%	32%
Community Informational Materials	21%	28%
Exhibits, Performances in Fine Arts	21%	12%
Technical Innovations	7%	24%
Other Products	19%	17%
By Level of Highest Degree	**Doctorate**	**Master's**
Conference Papers	59%	54%
Publications	48%	40%
Instructional Materials	30%	37%
Research/Technical Reports	40%	29%
Community Informational Materials	18%	17%
Exhibits, Performances in Fine Arts	8%	21%
Technical Innovations	10%	15%
Other Products	21%	17%

By Subject of Highest Degree	Liberal Arts and Sciences	Education	Vocational/ Technical
Conference Papers	65%	49%	46%
Publications	44%	28%	39%
Instructional Materials	30%	42%	43%
Research/Technical Reports	29%	29%	34%
Community Informational Materials	22%	25%	25%
Exhibits, Performances in Fine Arts	19%	20%	12%
Technical Innovations	10%	15%	20%
Other Products	20%	14%	16%

Table Eight
Percent of Full-Time, Female Respondents Completing One or More Scholarly Products During the Past Two Years, by Selected Characteristics

By Teaching Field	Liberal Arts and Sciences	Vocational/ Technical
Conference Papers	62%	56%
Publications	36%	22%
Instructional Materials	29%	38%
Research/Technical Reports	22%	27%
Community Informational Materials	17%	34%
Exhibits, Performances in Fine Arts	18%	5%
Technical Innovations	6%	14%
Other Products	20%	20%
By Level of Highest Degree	**Doctorate**	**Master's**
Conference Papers	70%	60%
Publications	50%	29%
Instructional Materials	24%	35%
Research/Technical Reports	30%	22%
Community Informational Materials	14%	25%
Exhibits, Performances in Fine Arts	4%	13%
Technical Innovations	7%	8%
Other Products	40%	17%

By Subject of Highest Degree	Liberal Arts and Sciences	Education	Vocational/ Technical
Conference Papers	63%	63%	49%
Publications	34%	27%	27%
Instructional Materials	30%	41%	27%
Research/Technical Reports	26%	30%	15%
Community Informational Materials	15%	31%	31%
Exhibits, Performances in Fine Arts	16%	8%	6%
Technical Innovations	7%	12%	10%
Other Products	26%	27%	23%

scholarly work, such as the development of instructional materials or technical innovations.

Support Received by Faculty

The questionnaire also asked respondents to check off, from a list of several items, the types of support that they received from their institutions while working on out-of-class scholarly projects (Table Nine). Twenty-seven percent of the full-time faculty and 50 percent of the part-time faculty who had completed one or more scholarly products indicated that they received no support at all. When faculty did receive support, it was more likely to be in the form of collegial assistance rather than monetary outlay. For example, the items most frequently checked off by full-time faculty were encouragement from faculty colleagues (37 percent), encouragement from the division chair (37 percent), and encouragement from the dean (33 percent); 18 percent cited encouragement from the president. More tangible support, though less frequently cited, was also received by the faculty: computer time and equipment (a category checked off by 18

Table Nine
Institutional Support Received by Faculty for Work on Scholarly Products

	Full-Time Faculty	Part-Time Faculty
% Indicating that They Have Received:		
Encouragement from Faculty Colleagues	37%	26%
Encouragement from Division Chair	37%	25%
Encouragement from Dean	33%	12%
Encouragement from President	18%	6%
Computer Time or Equipment	18%	9%
Release Time or Sabbatical	16%	3%
Financial Support (Excluding Salary)	15%	6%
Student Assistant	9%	2%
Other	6%	5%
Help from Institutional Research Office	5%	4%
No Help at All	27%	50%

Note: Percentages refer only to those respondents who indicated that they had produced at least one scholarly product during the past two years.

percent of the full-time faculty members); release time or sabbatical leave (16 percent); financial support, excluding salary (15 percent); student assistants (9 percent); and help from the institutional research office (5 percent).

These findings are encouraging, suggesting that collegial relationships have the potential to compensate—at least partially—for the lack of resources available to support faculty scholarship. This collegiality was underscored by the penciled-in comments of some respondents who noted that although they had received no support from the institution for their scholarly work, they were sure that some support would have been forthcoming had they only asked for it. On the other hand, others didn't feel they were working in a collegial environment at all. One respondent scribbled, "This college doesn't give a damn!" Similar sentiments were expressed by others, though in a less bitter vein. For example, one respondent wrote that "administrators place no value on independent scholarly research, writing, or publication; creativity or initiative are not important or encouraged at my institution." The fact remains that some faculty members feel their institutions welcome their scholarly work, while others feel their institutions are indifferent or hostile to it.

Barriers to Faculty Scholarship

The survey instrument also asked respondents to check off, from a list of several items, the factors that pose the most formidable barriers to the completion of out-of-class scholarly products at the community college. Some of these items dealt with time constraints due to teaching loads, family commitments, or outside job or volunteer responsibilities (items 1, 3, 5, 6, and 8 in Table Ten). Others dealt with remuneration, that is, with the way colleges reimburse faculty and—more importantly—for what (items 2, 4, 7, and 9 in Table Ten). Thus, this part of the questionnaire was designed to answer the following question: Do faculty view constraints on their time as the most formidable barrier to work on scholarship, or do they view the limited financial support their colleges provide for these activities and the limited extent to which colleges reward these activities as the most formidable barriers?

The respondents indicated that both were problems, though limited time was an overriding concern. Most of the full-time faculty (61 percent) cited the obvious: "Teaching takes up too much time." Part-timers were more likely to cite the time constraints posed by obligations outside of the college; 44 percent of the part-time respondents cited the time required by other jobs, and 36 percent cited the time constraints caused by family commitments. Interestingly, the more scholarly products the respondent had completed, the less likely he or she was to cite time as a problem and

Table Ten
Faculty Opinions Concerning Factors that Limit Ability to Work on Scholarly Products

	Full-Time Faculty	Part-Time Faculty
% Indicating:		
1) Teaching Takes Up Too Much Time	61%	30%
2) College Provides Little or No Financial Help	45%	41%
3) Advising/Work with Students Outside of Class Takes Up Too Much Time	32%	12%
4) Scholarship Outside of Teaching Will Not Improve My Rank or Salary	31%	24%
5) Administrative/Committee Work Takes Up Too Much Time	28%	7%
6) Family Commitments Take Up Too Much Time	26%	36%
7) Administrators Do Not Encourage or Recognize Scholarship	22%	16%
8) Work Outside of College Takes Up Too Much Time	9%	44%
9) Union Contract Does Not Make Provision for Scholarly Work	8%	3%

the more likely he or she was to cite remuneration policies and the expectations of the college. For example, of the full-time respondents who checked off two or more items related to remuneration, 46 percent had published at least once during the past two years. But of those full-time respondents who checked no items related to remuneration and who cited time constraints exclusively, only 26 percent had published during the past two years. Obviously, those who have found time to work on scholarly products are less likely to see time as a problem; and, having invested quite a bit of their time in scholarly work, they are probably more keenly aware of the extent to which that work has or has not been rewarded by the college.

Though some faculty manage to maintain a productive schedule of scholarly work outside of teaching, others find that the time constraints posed by heavy teaching loads take their toll. In unsolicited comments, many respondents emphasized the imposing burdens born by teachers

who face 150 or more students per semester, many of whom have deficiencies in the basic skills. Some commented that the work-a-day grind is intellectually debilitating. For example, a philosophy instructor with several years' experience wrote that "the problem with the community college is we teach too much—repeat ourselves too often and don't have enough time and energy to refuel." Another respondent noted that after years of teaching five courses per term, including summers, he had "gotten out of the habit of being scholarly." For many faculty members, though not all, time constraints posed by heavy teaching loads stifled intellectual life, making it more difficult for faculty to remain active scholars as they progress through their careers.

Faculty Attitudes Toward Scholarship

Finally, how do the faculty feel about the role out-of-class scholarship plays in their professional lives? In the survey, respondents were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement with the following statement: "Working on scholarly products such as those listed earlier in this survey instrument will improve my teaching effectiveness." Of the full-time respondents, 73 percent agreed, 15 percent disagreed, and 11 percent indicated that they weren't sure. Responses were similar for part-timers: 72 percent agreed; 14 percent disagreed; and 11 percent indicated that they weren't sure. Another item asked the respondents to indicate their agreement or disagreement with the statement that "community college faculty should not be required by their colleges to work on scholarly products such as those listed earlier in this questionnaire." Responses to this question were not so lopsided: 48 percent disagreed; 33 percent agreed; and 17 percent responded that they were not sure. Responses from part-timers were reversed: 30 percent disagreed with the statement; 49 percent agreed; and 16 percent were not sure. Though the faculty recognize the value of remaining active in scholarship, many—especially full-time instructors—are reluctant to view it as a collective, professional responsibility or as a requisite of employment. Several of the respondents noted in the margins that though their institutions should encourage faculty work on scholarly products, such works should not be required.

The view of scholarship as a personal and optional endeavor rather than as a professional requisite was emphasized in the respondents' written comments. For example, one instructor with a lengthy publications record indicated that while "lack of recognition from the college 'hurts,' . . . I'm doing all this writing for the very best reason (I want to), and neither tenure, rank, nor salary is dependent upon publication." To this respondent, the time constraints and fiscal limitations that come with work at a community college were irrelevant as far as his scholarship was concerned.

The implication was that while he valued the importance of scholarship, he also valued his freedom from the publish-or-perish atmosphere of the university. This freedom, he implied, made scholarship at the community college a labor of love and not a matter of coercion.

The distinction between voluntary scholarship and the forced production of scholarship was highlighted by the comments of another respondent who expressed dismay at the little regard his college has for faculty efforts to publish. "Active hostility [toward publication]," he wrote, "is found not only within the administration, but also among faculty members who seem to associate research and publication with all that is evil in the university system." The ideal institutional culture, he continued, would be one that encouraged faculty publication without demanding it: "I would not like to be forced to publish, but I am very angry at the lack of toleration for those who do."

Implications

A brief survey cannot do full justice to the topic of scholarship and the ways faculty view their scholarly lives. The comments that some faculty respondents wrote on the questionnaire showed that the survey barely scratched the surface of a tempestuous issue. Some faculty feel strongly that they should be more involved in the production of scholarly products and that community colleges should encourage this work. One respondent, conceding that "teaching is our main function at the community college," deplored the limited support and recognition he received from his college for his scholarly efforts: "I think it is dangerous—almost anti-intellectual—to not support written or other work that has been adjudicated by outside publishers and sources." Other faculty are leery of calls for attention to out-of-class scholarship, fearful that their contributions as teachers will be undervalued. For example, a political science instructor noted that ". . . the obvious must be stated: the principal mission of a two-year community college is *to teach.* I am here in large part because I consider that mission to be valid, important, and satisfying." Another respondent concurred, seeing in the survey an endorsement of the publish-or-perish philosophy:

> The gist of your instrument rubs at a sore in my educational philosophy. Your stated items equate "scholarly" with publishing, be it software, papers, books, etc. This represents the traditional "publish-or-perish" syndrome. Somewhere in your research it must be recognized [and] factored into your results that our scholarly activities are directed toward other ends. For years on end I have reviewed books to use as texts. Many are just plain bad. Many are outrageously priced

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> if they are good. This is what has forced me into writing [and] publishing the materials that I have for classroom use. The objective, however, is what will help my students vs. my publishing something.

Clearly, scholarship at the community college is a touchy issue. No survey can capture all nuances of this topic, and much more needs to be done to understand the professional roles community college faculty play as scholars. Nonetheless, the survey findings, however limited, lead to several tentative conclusions.

First, if scholarship is defined broadly along the lines suggested by Vaughan, and not limited solely to original research, then it appears that most community college faculty—perhaps 80 percent of those employed on a full-time basis—are actively engaged in the production of works that are of *potential* scholarly value. What these works are precisely and how they complement teaching are questions that cannot be answered through a brief questionnaire. It is not possible, for example, to determine if the products developed by the survey respondents were actually subject to the criticism of peers or if the development of these products required the systematic application of a substantial body of knowledge. Nonetheless, the survey findings suggest that college efforts to encourage faculty scholarship can be built on what faculty are already doing. This can be accomplished by providing forums that allow faculty to share the results of their scholarly work and that provide the college with a mechanism for recognizing and rewarding this work.

Second, college leaders need to articulate a broad definition of scholarship and assure faculty that an institutional emphasis on scholarship will not be constructed within a publish-or-perish framework and will not compete with classroom teaching. Despite the wide variety of scholarly products listed in the survey instrument, many respondents reacted negatively to it, equating calls for scholarship with demands that faculty maintain a strong publications record. This reaction is understandable, given the long association of scholarship with original research undertaken at the university. But unless faculty understand that publishable research is simply one form of scholarship, they may resent and resist efforts to encourage scholarly work. Scholarship will not flourish if it is not understood.

Third, it should be recognized that work on scholarly products will not take the same form for all faculty members. Some will write for publication, while others will concentrate on less traditional projects. Much will depend on one's academic background and teaching discipline. College efforts to encourage scholarship should be structured at the departmental level with input from division chairs and faculty. Though all can be held to the same standard of excellence, each should be free to pursue a wide

variety of projects. This is consistent with the broad definition of scholarship put forward by Vaughan.

Fourth, encouragement and support among colleagues is an extremely important determinant of faculty work on scholarly products at community colleges. While university faculty look to professional encouragement from colleagues across the country who specialize in the same subject areas, this is not usually the case for community college instructors, who must often seek collegial support from within the institution. While many respondents indicated that they had received such support, especially from fellow instructors, the division chair, and the academic dean, others indicated that they received no support at all. Clearly, college leaders and faculty themselves have a role to play in assessing the degree to which scholarship is welcome and encouraged within their institutional cultures.

Finally, the task of bringing scholarship foursquare into the professional lives of faculty will not be accomplished by simply adding the development of scholarly products to the list of things faculty have to do. Many faculty will resent this, especially if additional compensation is not forthcoming. Scholarship is not a matter for the personnel office. It is a function of the institutional culture and will flourish best if that culture helps faculty pursue scholarship as a labor of love. While the issues of workload and compensation cannot be ignored, much can be accomplished by encouraging, recognizing, and valuing the scholarly work community college faculty already do.

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James C. Palmer is acting director of the Center for Community College Education at George Mason University, Virginia.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

Additional Resources on Faculty Scholarship at Community Colleges

Diane Hirshberg

A small body of literature, cited below, addresses the issue of faculty scholarship at community, technical, and junior colleges. Most writings call for an increased emphasis on scholarship within the institutional culture of the two-year college, pointing out the need to complement teaching with scholarly inquiry. Many suggest ways in which scholarship can be encouraged and rewarded.

The citations in this chapter are listed in two sections. The first section includes references to ERIC documents (marked with "ED" numbers). Most ERIC documents can be read on microfiche at more than 800 libraries worldwide. In addition, most may be ordered on microfiche or paper copy (at cost of reproduction and mailing) from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). The second section includes citations for journal articles. These articles are not available through ERIC and must be obtained through regular library channels.

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Part I: ERIC Documents

Bell, Stephen. "Research Activities of Community College Faculty: Experience at the Ontario Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology." Paper presented at the 30th

Annual Forum of the Association for Institutional Research, Louisville, KY, May 13–16, 1990. 26 pp. (ED 321 695)

A sample of seven colleges was chosen for a study on the research activities of community college faculties in Ontario. Faculty (n = 394 out of a possible 865) were asked to indicate how often they participated in 22 different research activities and how characteristic these activities were of their role as community college faculty. The primary interest of the study was to determine the structure underlying the data to see whether community college faculty were using the university definition of what constitutes research (publishing) as a basis for defining their research role as compared to a broader definition of what constitutes research in the community college environment (applied expertise). Results showed that a small core of community college faculty were engaged in traditional university research activities such as reviewing proposals for funding agencies, publishing or editing books and monographs, and delivering papers to professional society meetings. Community college faculty were, however, more apt to engage in research activities related to the applied mission of the community college. These data suggest that continued research should examine what these results might mean in terms of teaching effectiveness, institutional quality, and overall faculty job satisfaction and productivity. Contains 20 references.

Griffiths, Rosemary E. "Critical Comments on the Literature Written by Presidents of Community Colleges." Graduate seminar paper, University of California, Los Angeles, 1989. 16 pp. (ED 313 062)

This critical review of the speeches, journal articles, and books written by community college presidents examines themes, styles, and information sources and attempts to define standards by which the presidents' writings could be judged. The first section indicates that community college presidents are as prolific as any other group of two-year college writers; that they write not only for their peers, but also for a wide cross-section of educators; and that they often continue to write about community colleges even after they have left the field. The second section describes the various types of publications in which materials written by presidents are found, ranging from community college journals, ERIC documents, and speeches to full-length books.

Tracing the most frequently covered topics in presidential writings, the next section indicates that while coping with change and fiscal matters have been recurring themes, most of the literature focuses on issues of immediate concern, such as declining enrollments and collective bargaining. While acknowledging variation in the writing styles of presidents, the next section offers generalizations about their predominantly positive and uncritical tone, their lack of empirical data, and their use of jargon,

technical language, and journalistic phrases. Next, a section on information sources indicates that most writings focus on the presidents' own experiences and their own colleges, relying little on outside literature. The final section assesses the presidential literature on the basis of its factuality, objectivity, relevance, and practicality and offers general conclusions about the least and most valuable writings.

Lord, Thomas R. "Spotlighting Faculty Scholarship at the Two-Year College." Unpublished manuscript, 1988. 9 pp. (ED 301 264)

According to Lord, most people do not associate community colleges with the terms "scholarship" and "research." One reason is that the mission statements of community colleges rarely include these terms when discussing teaching excellence. Another is that most people within higher education still hold the antiquated view that scholarship is simply research leading to publication. Other efforts, such as addressing professional audiences at regional or national meetings, designing and conducting workshops and symposia, and preparing articles for respected professional journals, are neither noted nor appreciated. If a broader view of academic scholarship were generally accepted, encompassing professional activity, artistic endeavor, engagement with novel ideas, community service, pedagogy, and research and publication, it would be more widely recognized that scholarship takes place at community colleges. Scholars at community colleges tend to be among the most devoted of the institutions' instructors, for they make time for research while teaching a heavy course load and are often not financially supported for their research by the institution. To encourage scholarly activities, the New Jersey Department of Higher Education recently sponsored a statewide conference to showcase two-year college scholarship. If scholarly activity is to prosper, community colleges must begin to value and stimulate scholarship from their faculty.

Oromaner, Mark. "The Community College Professor: Teacher and Scholar." ERIC Digest. Los Angeles: ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges, 1986, 5 pp. (ED 272 248)

Oromaner claims that the emphasis in community colleges on teaching as a primary faculty responsibility has frequently caused classroom teaching to be divorced from scholarship. Although the teaching role is not a necessary condition for successful scholarship, some form of scholarship appears to be a necessary condition for successful teaching over an extended period of time. Therefore, the stress on teaching in community colleges may have actually led to a decline in the quality of teaching. The fact that new colleges are not being opened, that enrollments are declining, that funds for professional development are scarce, and that community college faculty are aging reinforces the importance of scholarship as a means

of enhancing faculty members' performance and image as professionals. While at the university level scholarship is equated with research, at the community college level a more liberal definition of scholarship should be employed, including professional activity, research/publication, artistic endeavors, engagement with novel ideas, community service, and pedagogy. The systematic processes involved in each of these activities will do much to strengthen teaching and combat boredom and burn-out. Though examples of scholar-teachers exist on every campus, there is a need for the formal encouragement, support, and reward that would institutionalize the role of the scholar-teacher, and, in doing so, revitalize the teaching role.

Parilla, Robert E. "Gladly Would They Learn and Gladly Teach." Southern Association of Community and Junior Colleges Occasional Paper, Volume 4, Number 1. Charlottesville, Va.: Southern Association of Community and Junior Colleges, 1986. 6 pp. (ED 263 949)

The author asserts that American higher education has isolated the enterprise of basic research and relegated it to the university, while simultaneously insulating the craft of teaching from the scholarship that nourishes it by identifying certain colleges, community colleges in particular, as "teaching" institutions. From the start, community colleges have not required that their faculty conduct research or publish in subject-matter areas. In fact, the heavy teaching loads required in community colleges leave teachers without the time or perhaps even the incentive to conduct scholarly research. Few community college faculty members have been able to keep abreast of their disciplines, and they enjoy fewer opportunities than their four-year college counterparts to participate in professional activities. Consequently, faculty burn-out is becoming the new academic disease, as faculty members teach from year to year without significant professional development. While there are currently many faculty development programs, most place emphasis on how to teach rather than on what to teach, affording little support for scholarly activities. Community colleges need to define a middle ground, blending subject-matter research with pedagogical scholarship, in order to promote intellectual revitalization, to engage the community as a resource, and to provide field experience for students. Such a program has been developed at Montgomery College (MC) in Maryland, where faculty receive support for activities such as writing for publication, participating in performing arts, creating an artistic work, or holding a major office in a professional organization. In this way, MC is assured of having expert teachers who are also experts in their fields.

Sutherland, Mark J. "Community College Faculty: Why Do They Write What They Write? (And Why Do They Write at All?)." Graduate seminar paper, University of California, Los Angeles, 1989. 14 pp. (ED 313 060)

An analysis of ten journal articles written by community college instructors revealed marked similarities in the authors' topics, writing styles, basic assumptions, data sources, and motivations to write. The authors focused their writing on curricular matters within their academic fields, using general teacher journals and teacher journals in specific academic areas as their primary sources. The instructors' choice of topics may have been influenced by the following factors: the classroom is the domain of the instructor; instructors teach because they truly enjoy it; publishing an article on classroom instruction may serve as an outlet for communicating teaching methods and ideas to colleagues; satisfaction comes from knowing that ideas are valued by peers; writing about teaching brings curricular decision making into the instructor's realm; instructors may have been encouraged by administrators to write about their classroom approaches to improve the prestige of their community college; and educational journals actively solicit paper submissions. By writing, the well-integrated instructor may be attempting to fill a void in his/her professional life, break free from the established dichotomy between research and instruction, or avoid professional stagnation.

Part II: Journal Articles

Hopson, Carol S. "Faculty in Community Colleges Should Conduct Research for Publication." Association for Communication Administration Bulletin, *1984*, 47, *81–83.*

In this article, Hopson stresses the need for and importance of research by community college faculty. She argues that community college faculty should conduct research that pinpoints the needs of their students and fosters development of resources and materials that can meet these needs. She points out that research can enhance the quality of teaching in the community college as well as contribute to the professional growth of the faculty.

Kievitt, F. David. "Tenure and Promotion Policies in the Two-Year College." ADE Bulletin, *1986*, 83, *6–8.*

Kievitt describes the harmful effects of administrators' attitudes of denigrating education, scholarship, and professional activities of the faculty in community colleges. He suggests that the faculty counteract this pervasive influence by doing their own research.

Knodt, Ellen Andrews. "Taming Hydra: The Problem of Balancing Teaching and Scholarship at a Two-Year College." Teaching English in the Two-Year College, *1988*, 15 *(3), 170–74.*

The author suggests several ways that institutions can help teachers continue with research and scholarly studies, including release time for

faculty, variable course loads, external funding, government grants, providing adequate library resources, and overcoming the isolation of two-year college faculty from their colleagues.

Kroll, Keith. "Building Communities: Joining the Community of Professional Writing Teachers." Teaching English in the Two-Year College, *1990,* 17 *(2), 103–8.*

This article argues that classroom research is one feasible way for community college English faculty to (1) create knowledge, (2) overcome the false dichotomy that exists between teaching and scholarship in community colleges, (3) establish a professional identity, and (4) affirm the bond with the community of professional writing teachers.

Laabs, Theodore R. "Community College Tenure: Teach or Research?" Community/Junior College Quarterly of Research and Practice, *1987,* 11 *(4), 267–73.*

Laabs explores the purpose of the doctoral (research) degree as an employment qualification in the community college environment where teaching is the primary mission. He sees a contradiction in the hiring process under tenure requirements and suggests that equal value be placed on instructional material development and publication in scholarly journals.

Parilla, Robert E. "Scholarship in Community Colleges." College Teaching, *1987,* 35 *(3), 111–12.*

The relationship between teaching and scholarship in the community college is discussed in this article, which argues for a revival of scholarly activities at the community college. A program to encourage faculty scholarship at Montgomery College, Maryland, is described.

Purser, Gordon G., and Scull, Sharon D. "Community College Research. A Creative Approach to Enhancing Instruction." Journal of College Science Teaching, *1989,* 19 *(1), 26–29, 62.*

This article discusses faculty research in community colleges. It describes the rationale for research; research approaches including literature research, theoretical investigation, and experimentation; funding sources; obstacles; and benefits of faculty research. It includes addresses for five resources.

Sledge, Linda Ching. "The Community College Scholar." ADE Bulletin, *1986,* 83, *9–11.*

Sledge discusses how community college scholars confront three thorny issues in the MLA: coping with isolation and negative stereotyping on their own campuses and within the profession; affirming the unique scholarly perspective sparked by career readjustments; and making that perspective known in professional circles.

Vaughan, George B. "Scholarship in Community Colleges: The Path to Respect." Educational Record, *1988, 69 (2), 26–31.*

Vaughan argues that community colleges will achieve their full potential as institutions of higher education only when scholarship occupies a prominent place in the community college philosophy. He thinks that presidents must establish a climate on campus that promotes scholarship as well as teaching, and must themselves be scholars. Much of this argument is detailed in Chapter One of this monograph.

Diane Hirshberg is user services specialist at the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges, Los Angeles, California.

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APPENDIX

Sampling Methodology Used in the National Survey of Faculty Scholarship at Community, Technical, and Junior Colleges

The methodology used in the survey discussed in Chapter Six aimed at securing a random sample of faculty teaching at a random sample of 150 public community, technical, and junior colleges. In addition, steps were taken to overrepresent faculty who were more likely to engage in scholarly activities: full-time faculty and those who teach in the liberal arts and sciences. The sampling procedures are outlined below.

- As a first step in securing this sample, letters were sent to the chief executive officers of 250 randomly selected colleges asking that their institutions participate in the study.
- Using the spring 1991 class schedules from those colleges that agreed to participate, staff at George Mason University's Center for Community College Education selected a rolling, random sample of every ninth faculty member listed as teaching at least two three-credit classes. Only faculty members actually named in the class schedules were selected; no survey instruments were sent to faculty listed as "staff" or who were otherwise unnamed. In addition, faculty teaching construction trades, cosmetology, food service, and secretarial skills were excluded.
- For each faculty member selected, center staff prepared a packet including the questionnaire and a return envelope. A roster of selected faculty was then prepared for each college and sent, along with the appropriate survey packets, to a staff person designated by the chief executive officer as the college's survey coordinator. The coordinator distributed the packets to the designated faculty members and returned the completed questionnaires in sealed envelopes marked "confidential" to the center. If faculty selected for inclusion in the survey were no longer teaching at the college, or if they refused to

participate, coordinators were asked to select substitutes teaching in the same or similar disciplines.

These procedures yielded mixed results. Only 103 colleges (40 percent) agreed to participate in the survey. Yet of those that agreed to participate, 101 returned usable questionnaires. And of the 988 questionnaires sent to those colleges, 840 (85 percent) were returned. Thus, while the response rate among individual institutions was low, the response rate among faculty selected for inclusion in the survey appears high. (However, the degree to which college survey coordinators had to make substitutions for faculty who were no longer teaching or who refused to participate remains unknown.)

How representative is the survey sample of the total population of faculty at public community, technical, and junior colleges? Tables A-1 and A-2 provide at least some indication. Geographically, the respondents are slightly underrepresented in the western region of the nation and overrepresented in the mid-Atlantic and northeast regions. The demographic

Table A-1
Comparison of Survey Respondents to Population of Public Community College Faculty Nationwide

	Full-Time		Part-Time	
	Population	Sample	Population	Sample
Gender				
Men	62%	65%	58%	52%
Women	38%	35%	42%	48%
Total:	100%	100%	100%	100%
Age				
Under 30	2%	3%	4%	7%
30–44	36%	35%	57%	44%
45–54	39%	42%	24%	24%
55–64	20%	19%	12%	17%
65 +	3%	1%	3%	7%
Total:	100%	100%	100%	99%
% with Ph.D.	19%	16%	9%	12%

Note: National data are from Russell, S.H., and others. *Faculty in Higher Education Institutions, 1988.* Contractor Report NCES 90-365. Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1990.

profile of the full-time respondents nearly matches the demographic profile of all full-time faculty nationally, but because part-timers were underrepresented in the survey, the match between those in the survey sample and those in the population in general is not as close.

Table A-2
Geographic Location of Responding Colleges in Comparison of Geographic Location of the Population of Public Community Colleges Nationwide

	% of Colleges in Region		% of Faculty in Region	
	Population	Sample	Population	Sample
Far West	19%	11%	28%	20%
Southwest	12%	15%	12%	13%
Plains & Midwest	18%	15%	15%	13%
Southeast	22%	23%	17%	19%
Mid-Atlantic	15%	21%	13%	18%
Northeast	14%	16%	14%	17%

Far West = AK, WA, OR, ID, HI, CA, NV, MT, WY, UT, CO
Southwest = AZ, NM, TX, OK
Plains & Midwest = ND, SD, NE, KS, MN, IA, MO, WI, IL
Southeast = AR, LA, KY, TN, MS, AL, FL, GA, SC, NC
Mid-Atlantic = VA, WV, IN, OH, MD, MI, DE
Northeast = CT, NJ, NY, PA, RI, MA, NH, VT, ME
Note: Survey responses were received from states that are underlined.

AACJC

American Association of Community and Junior Colleges
National Center for Higher Education
One Dupont Circle, N.W., Suite 410
Washington, D.C. 20036